The
INDIAN & PAKISTAN
YEAR BOOK
& WHO'S WHO

1951

COMPILED BY

"The Times of India"

BOMBAY



Time for Eastern trade

Ten-fifteen in England and the London, Manchester and Liverpool offices of The Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China have already opened to the public. At New York the day's work has not yet begun. In the East at Colombo it is tea-time and in Hong Kong business is finished for another day. But wherever business men engaged in the Eastern trade may be, they will find at the nearest branch of The Chartered Bank up-to-the-minute information, skilled assistance and efficient banking services.

THE CHARTERED BANK OF INDIA, AUSTRALIA AND CHINA

(Incorporated by Royal Charter 1853)

Head Office: 38 Bishopsgate, London, E.C.2

West End (London) Branch: 28 Charles II Street, London, S.W.1

Manchester Branch: 52 Mosley Street, Manchester, 2

Liverpool Branch: 27 Derby House, Liverpool, 2

New York Agency: 65 Broadway, New York, 6

Branches of the Bank are established at most centres of commercial importance throughout Southern and South-Eastern Asia and the Far East.

THE
INDIAN AND PAKISTAN YEAR BOOK
AND WHO'S WHO
1951

VOLUME XXXVII

A Statistical and Historical Annual of India and Pakistan, with an Explanation of the Principal Topics of the day

FOUNDED BY:

Sir STANLEY REED, K.B.E., LL.D.

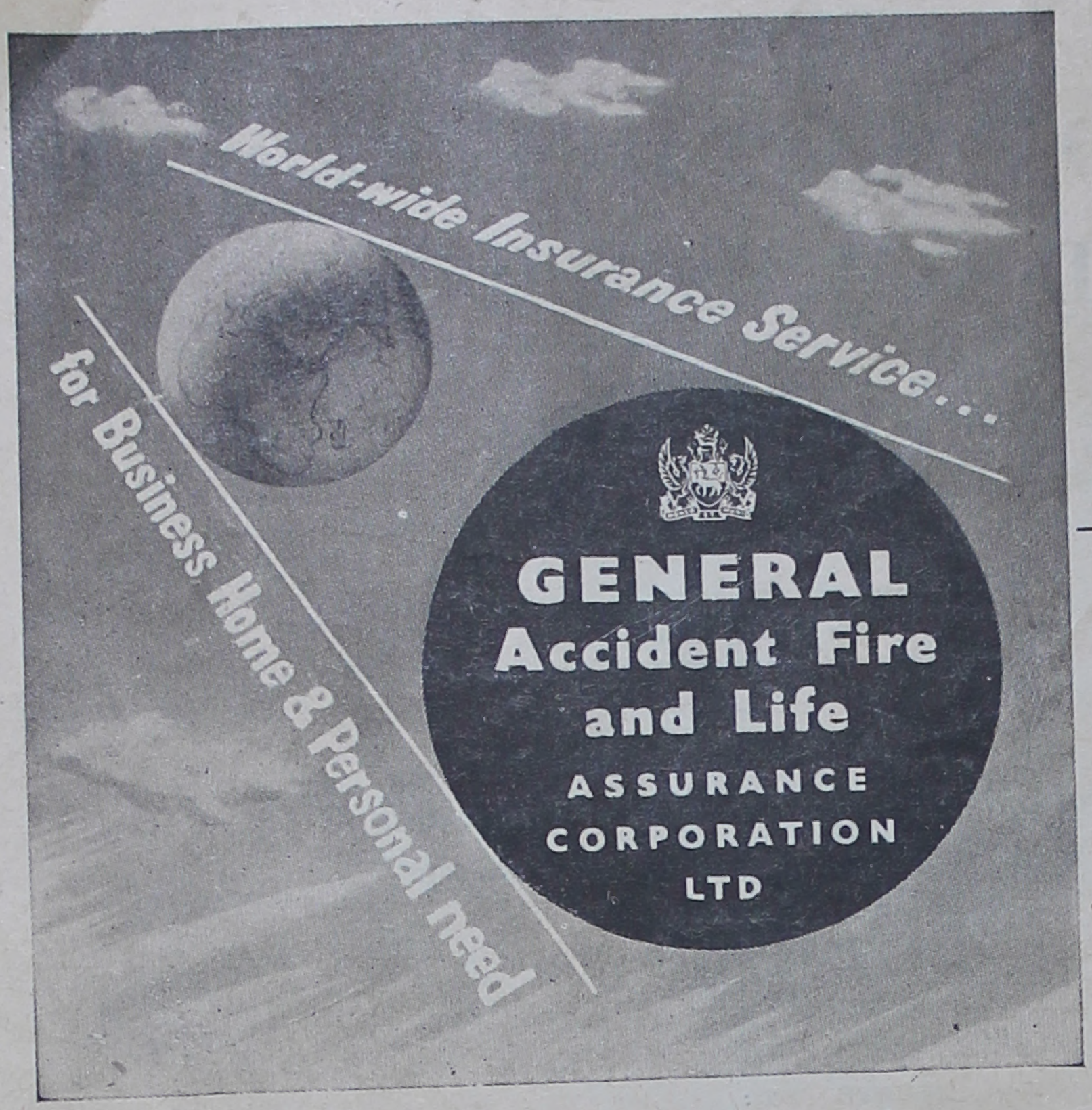
EDITED BY:

FRANK MORAES

Price Rs. 15

PUBLISHED BY:

BENNETT, COLEMAN & CO., LTD.
THE TIMES OF INDIA OFFICES, BOMBAY, DELHI AND CALCUTTA
LONDON: 4, ALBEMARLE STREET, W. 1.



(INCORPORATED IN GREAT BRITAIN.)

Offices or Agencies

in all

PRINCIPAL CITIES

Chief Office

for

INDIA AND PAKISTAN:

BANK OF BARODA BUILDING,

APOLLO STREET,

BOMBAY, 1.

LIME

97·30% Pure Calcium

(Certified by the Government)

THE GOTAN LIME SYNDICATE

The Biggest Producers of

LIME AN-HYDROUS IN INDIA

for

Sugar Factories

Leather Tanneries

Textile Mills

Chemical Works

Glass Factories & Potteries

Explosive Factories

Paper & Straw Board Mills

Water Softening & all

Building purposes, etc.

For particulars apply to :—

Factory Office :

THE GOTAN LIME SYNDICATE,
Gotan, J. Rly. (Rajasthan)
INDIA.

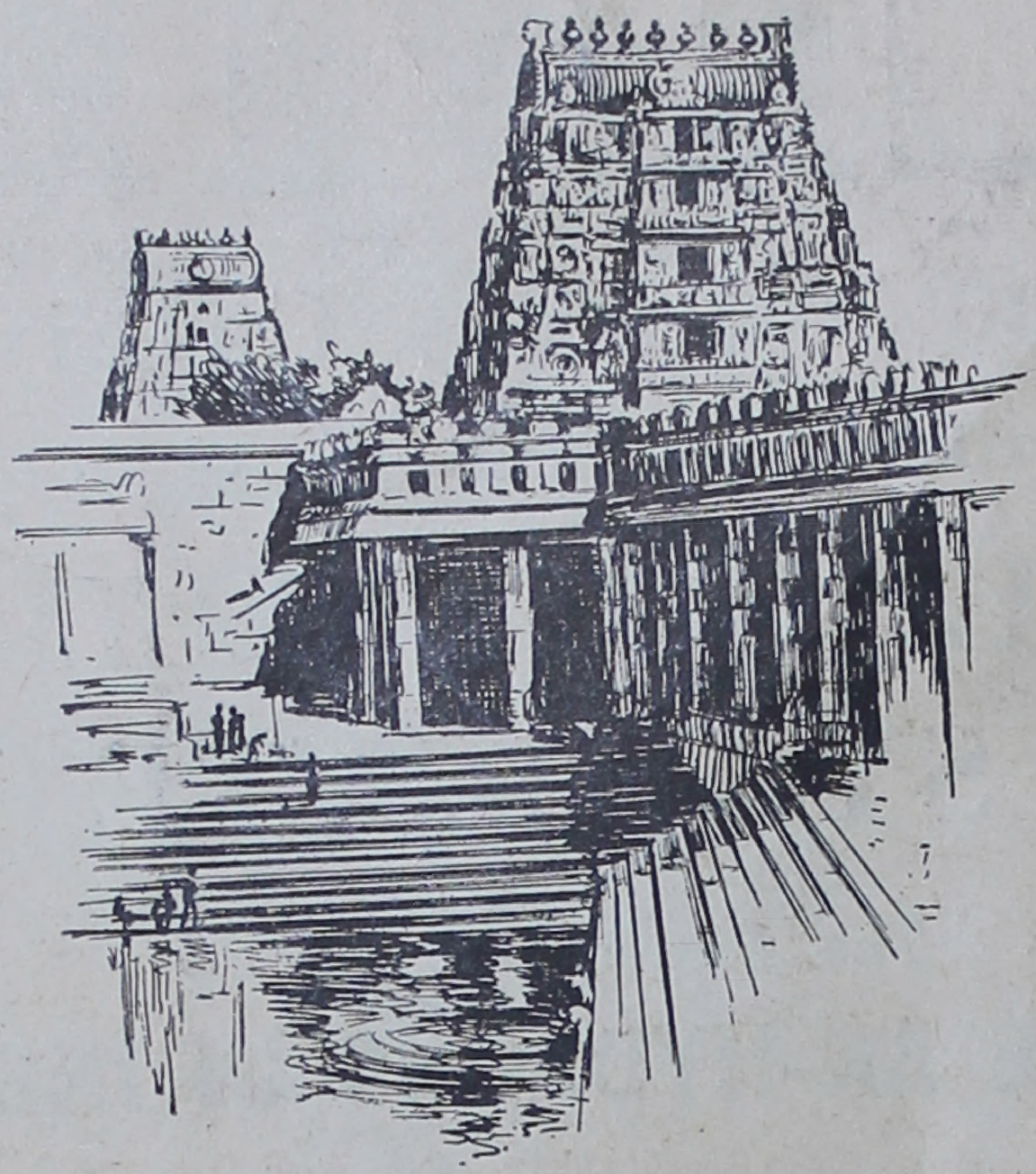
Tele. Add :- **SYNDICATE.**

OR

Jodhpur Office :

THE GOTAN LIME SYNDICATE,
Anand Cinema Buildings:
JODHPUR.

Tele. Add:—**SYNDICATE.** 'Phone :- **121** Trunk.



CRAFTSMANSHIP

Craftsmanship implies many things, and it takes a team of Craftsmen to turn out a perfect print. We have the men and the machines to give you satisfaction in any branch of printing and allied trades.

THE NEW JACK PRINTING WORKS LTD.

for

DESIGNS • MULTI-COLOUR
LITHOGRAPHY • PHOTO
OFFSET PRINTING
TRI-COLOUR BLOCKS
ESSENTIAL AND
SOPHISTICATED PACKING

DELISLE ROAD - Phones: 60042/60043 - BOMBAY 13

STANDARD'S SPECIALITIES



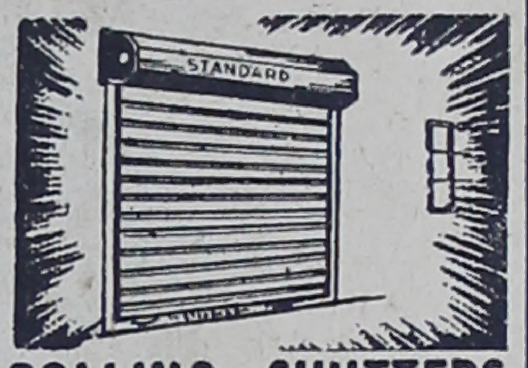
KELVIN HOUSE & LIFE BOATS



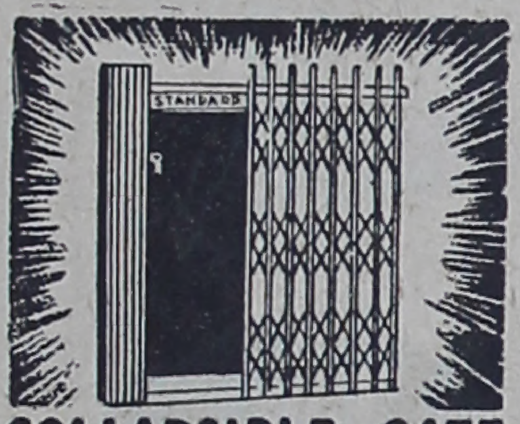
ROLLING GRILLS

Manufacturers of :

M. S. ROLLING SHUTTERS, ROLLING GRILLS, COLLAPSIBLE GATES, RAILINGS, GRILLS, CORRUGATED STEEL PALES FENCING, WATER STORAGE TANKS, FUEL TANKS, COMPOUND GATES, WHEEL BARROWS, MUNICIPAL & P. W. D. CARTS, STEEL STRUCTURES, LIFE BOATS, VICTORIA & TONGA CHANNELS, ETC.



ROLLING SHUTTERS



COLLAPSIBLE GATE

THE STANDARD ROLLING SHUTTERS AND ENGINEERING WORKS

Works :—37, A, B & E Parel Road, Cross Lane, Next to Byculla Goodsyard, Bombay 12

Tel. No. 41624

Office :—11, Bruce Street, Fort, Bombay

Grams : " Rolshutter "



W. I. GRILLS

THE UNITED COMMERCIAL BANK LIMITED

PAID-UP CAPITAL
Rs. 2,00,00,000
RESERVE FUND
Rs. 60,00,000

Chairman of the Central Board of Directors :

Mr. G. D. BIRLA

Members of the Bombay Local Board :

Mr. R. G. SARAIYA (*Chairman*)

Mr. M. L. Dahanukar
Mr. Navinchandra Mafatlal
Mr. Madan Mohan Ruia
Mr. Motilal Tapuriah
Mr. Mahomed Husein Hasham Premji

The Bank is fully equipped to give best services in India and Abroad

★

Branches all over India

★

Agents in all foreign countries

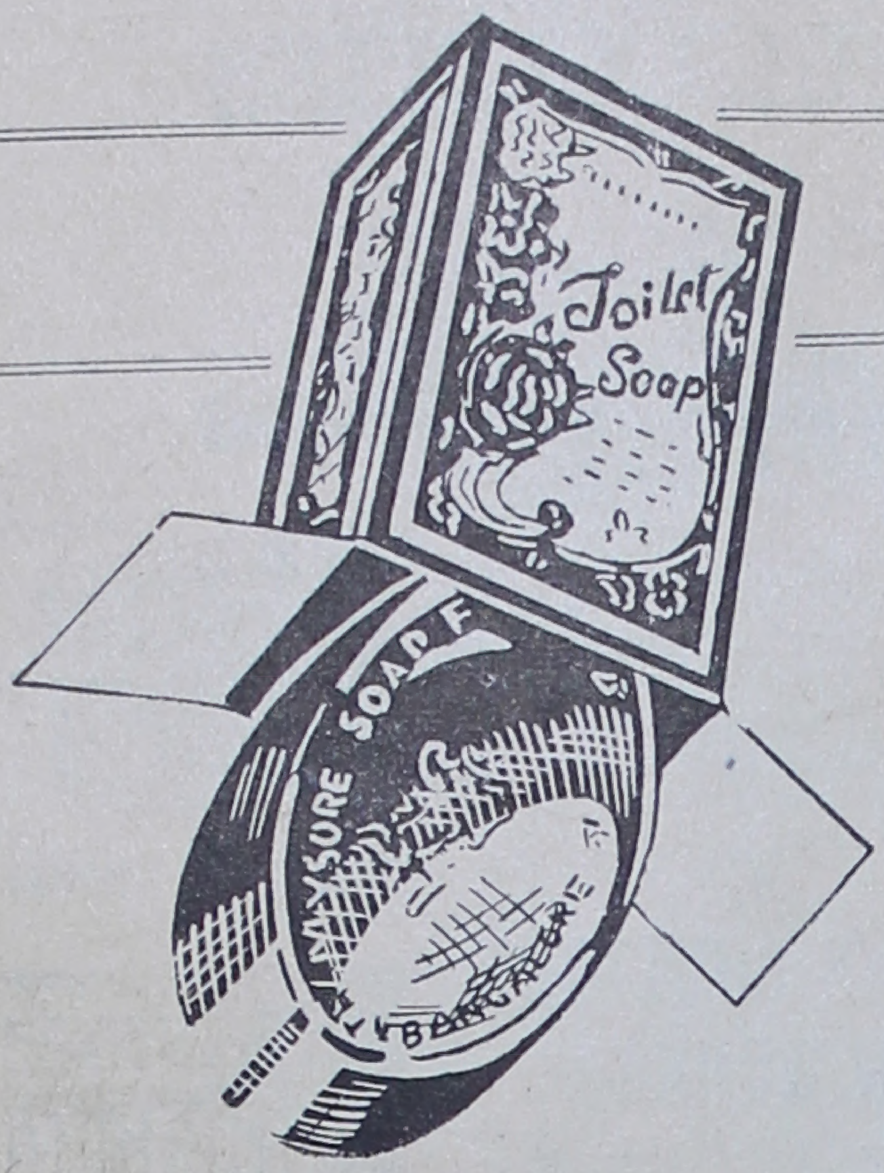
★

Head Office :
CALCUTTA

Bombay Main Office : **PETIT BUILDING, HORNBY ROAD**

General Manager :
B. T. THAKUR

Manager :
O. H. GHEEWALA



"INDUSTRIAL

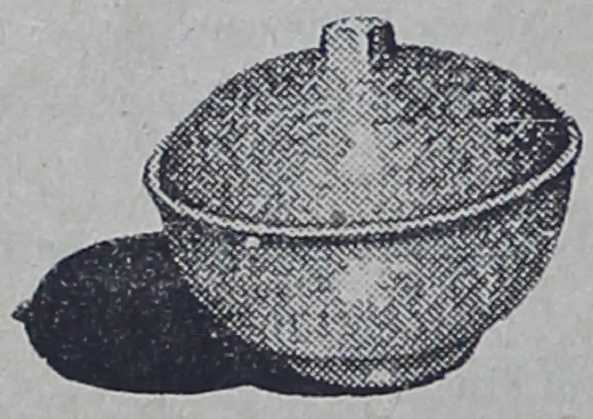
MYSORE SANDAL SOAP

A soap whose soothing emollient properties, delightful fragrance, wonderful cleansing properties and suitability for use on the most tender skin has made its name a household word in every Indian home.



GOVERNMENT SILK WEAVING FACTORY, MYSORE

is where the finest silk is spun and woven by expert craftsmen. The designs and colour schemes have made MYSORE SILK FABRICS famous both in India and outside.



GOVERNMENT ELECTRIC FACTORY, BANGALORE

Manufactures Mysore Transformers, Survey Instruments, Mysorite moulded articles, and electrical accessories. One of the largest factories in India, its products are extensively replacing imported goods.

GOVERNMENT PORCELAIN FACTORY, BANGALORE

Porcelain goods of all description are manufactured at this factory and Mysore Porcelain insulators, ceiling roses, switches and other goods are in universal use.

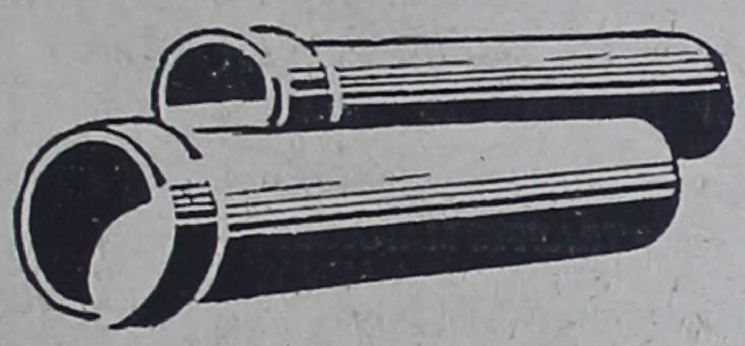
MYSORE MAKES MANY PRODUCTS

MYSORE ”

MYSORE SANDALWOOD OIL



This is the purest and highest grade of oil obtainable anywhere. Whether for pharmaceutical use or the manufacture of soap and perfumery, the name MYSORE is a guarantee of unsurpassed purity.



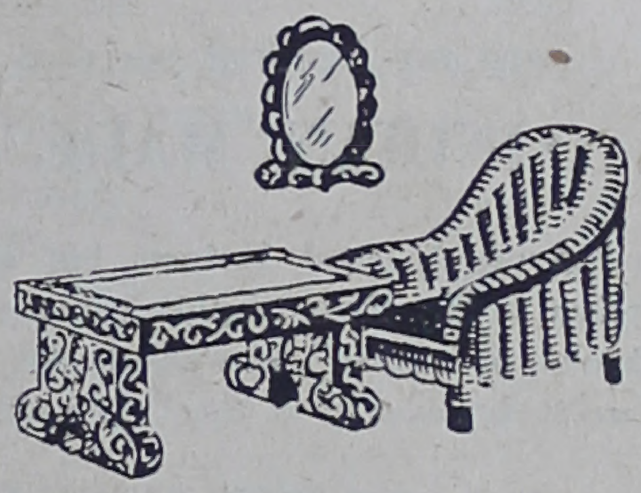
MYSORE IRON & STEEL WORKS, BHADRAVATI

The strength and durability of MYSORE STEEL is as good as any manufactured elsewhere in the world. Cast Iron Pipes to B. S. S. for water supply purposes from 2″ to 33″ dia. in standard lengths can be supplied.

ARTS & CRAFTS

SRI CHAMARAJENDRA TECHNICAL INSTITUTE, MYSORE

The craftsmanship of MYSORE cannot be excelled in any part of India. This is because the State has taken the keenest interest in its development, and placed its teaching in the hands of experts.



THE MYSORE IMPLEMENTS FACTORY, HASSAN

Quality is the keynote of the high grade tools and implements turned out by this factory, and every single article produced is designed to fulfil the purpose for which it is manufactured.

GOVERNMENT DICHROMATE FACTORY, BELAGULA, KRISHNARAJSAGAR P.O.

Manufactures Sodium Bichromate, Potassium Bichromate, Sodium Sulphate, Sodium Silicate and Chrome Pigments according to the latest scientific processes.

GOVERNMENT INSURANCE DEPT., BANGALORE

A progressive Government-sponsored department that undertakes Life and Motor insurance. The claims paid exceed Rs. One Crore and offers low premium and highest bonus.

BUT ONLY THE BEST OF EACH



" BUY INDIAN MADE GOODS, DON'T TOUCH GOODS MANUFACTURED OUTSIDE INDIA . . . . . .

ALL FREE COUNTRIES FOLLOW THAT PRINCIPLE IN THE INTEREST OF THEIR INDUSTRIES . . . . . .

PEOPLE SHOULD TAKE A PLEDGE THEREFORE NOT TO BUY FOREIGN GOODS . . . . . .

IN THAT WAY THE PEOPLE WOULD BE HELPING GOVERNMENT TO CONSOLIDATE THE COUNTRY . . . . . "

(Extract from late Sardar Patel's Speech at the All India Industries Exhibition organized by the Delhi Congress Committee.)

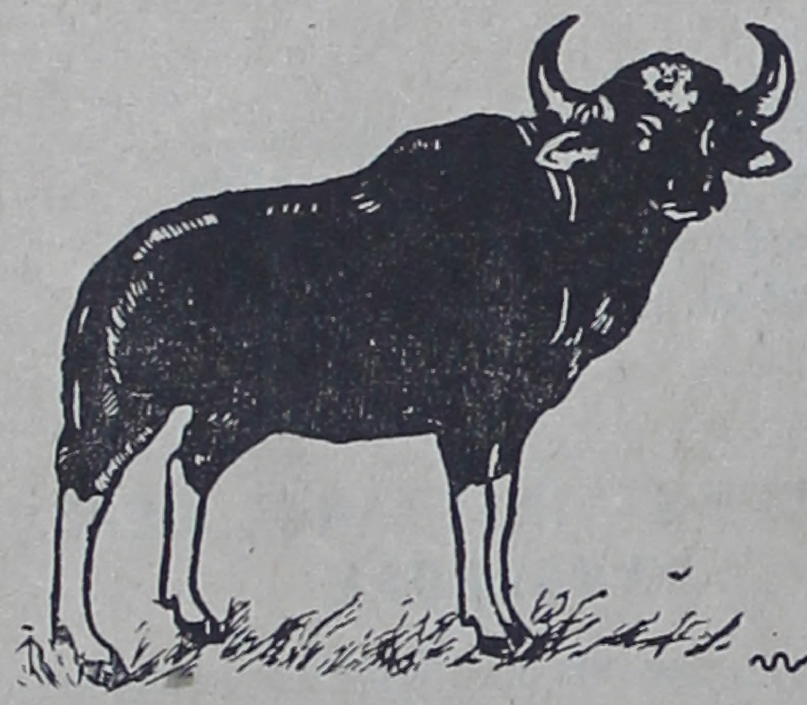
" BISON BRAND PAPERS"

are one hundred per cent

'INDIAN MADE'

It is not merely good business but also high patriotism to buy them whether you are printing text-books or making accounts-books, whether you are in business or in the University

Take a Pledge to " BUY BISON BRAND PAPERS ONLY " from now on



The MYSORE PAPER MILLS LTD.

BANGALORE - BHADRAVATI

You must visit the World famous frescoes and Cave temples of

AJANTA & ELLORA

the Bibi-Ka-Muqbara and Panchakki at Aurangabad and the Daulatabad Fort and Raoza all monuments of a magnificent past and stay at the

STATE HOTEL AURANGABAD

which is one of the leading hotels in India, up-to-date in every respect and famous amongst travellers for the excellence of its cuisine and service.

Further particulars will be gladly furnished by :

THE CHIEF TRAFFIC MANAGER,
NIZAM'S STATE RAILWAY,
SECUNDERABAD-DECCAN.

Or

THE MANAGERESS,
STATE HOTEL,
AURANGABAD.

Ahmed Oomerbhoy

Two Tanks
BOMBAY 8

Telegrams : **AHMEDMILLS** ● Telephone : **41977.**

OIL MILLERS

REFINERS, VANASPATI MANUFACTURERS, EXPORTERS & IMPORTERS.

Groundnut oil, Coconut oil, Castor oil, Till seed oil, Linseed Oil and other Vegetable oils.

Refined Groundnut oil 'POSTMAN' brand and Vanaspati 'OOMDA' brand a speciality.

ALL KINDS OF OIL CAKES AVAILABLE.

The UGAR SUGAR WORKS LIMITED

SANGLI, S.M.C.

Registered Office at Sangli (M. S. M. Rly.).
Factory and Estate at Ugar-Khurd
(M. S. M. Rly.).

ESTABLISHED IN 1939

Capital of Rs. 15,00,000
almost all subscribed and fully paid.

■

Managing Agents :

SHIRGAOKAR BROTHERS

12.18 *Recovery of Sugar for the Season* 1949-50.

New India Mosaic and Marble Co. Ltd.

Manufacturers of :

"NIMMCO"

Cement and Marble Mosaic flooring tiles of the finest quality and in variety of colours and under-takers of all sort of marble work, for which our factory is equipped with the latest machinery.

Office :

BRABOURNE STADIUM,
CHURCHGATE, BOMBAY 1

Factory :

INDUSTRIAL ESTATES,
41D, SUPARIBAUG ROAD,
LALBAUG, BOMBAY 12

Grams : **" NIMMCOTILE "**

Habib Bank Limited

(Established in 1941)

Registered Office : **Bunder Road, KARACHI**

CAPITAL		Rs.
Authorised	Pak.	2,00,00,000
Issued and Subscribed ..	,,	1,00,00,000
Paid-up	,,	1,00,00,000
Reserve Fund	,,	50,00,000
Deposits as on 31-12-1950	,,	35,12,00,000

INDIAN UNION BRANCHES :

1. BOMBAY 2. CALCUTTA 3. MADRAS

PAKISTAN BRANCHES :

KARACHI	SIND
4. Bunder Road	11. Hyderabad
5. Merewether Tower	12. Jacobabad
6. Napier Road	13. Khairpur Mirs
7. New Challi	14. Larkana
8. Saddar	15. Mirpurkhas
9. Safe Deposit Vault Br.	16. Nawabshah
10. Shoe Market	17. Shikarpur
	18. Sukkur

PUNJAB

19. Gujranwala	26. Multan
20. Kasur	27. Okara
21. Khanewal	28. Rawalpindi (City)
22. Lahore (Mall)	29. Rawalpindi (Cantt.)
23. Lahore (Circular Rd.)	30. Sargodha
24. Lyallpur	31. Sheikhupura
25. Montgomery	32. Sialkot

N. W. FRONTIER	BALUCHISTAN
33. Mardan	35. Chaman
34. Peshawar	36. Quetta

EAST PAKISTAN

37. Chandpur	40. Dacca (Nawabpur Rd.)
38. Chittagong	41. Narayanganj
39. Dacca (Moulvi Bazar)	42. Rangpur
	43. Sylhet

ALL KINDS OF BANKING BUSINESS INCLUDING FOREIGN EXCHANGE TRANSACTED

CONTENTS

Page

INDIA

Physical Map .. .. .. *Facing page* 1
Physiography 1
The Frontiers 4
Meteorology 8
Earthquakes 11
Population 14
Indians Overseas 25
Education 31
Art 50
Arts & Crafts 53
Archæology 54
Architecture 58
Literature 60
The Press 67
Laws & Administration of Justice 74
Laws of 1950 79
Proving of Wills 96
The Defence Forces 97
The Co-operative Movement 106
Labour 114
Forests 138
Climbing in the Himalayas 141
Scientific Surveys 144
The Currency System 147
Coinage 154
Banking 156
Stock Exchange 166
Chambers of Commerce 170
Index Numbers of Prices 175
Trade Marks 177
Patents & Designs 178
Copyright 180
Bullion 181
Finance 185
Insurance 194
Tariff Board 197
The Alcohol Industry 199
The Cement Industry 201
The Chemical Industry 202
The Coffee Industry 206
The Coir Industry 207
Cottage Industries 208
The Film Industry 211
The Glass Industry 214
Hides, Skins & Leather 215
The Jute Industry 217
The Lac Industry 219

Page

The Non-Ferrous Industry 219
The Opium Industry 222
The Paper Industry 223
The Plastics Industry 224
The Rayon Industry 225
The Rubber Industry 226
The Shipping Industry 227
The Steel Industry 229
The Sugar Industry 231
The Tea Industry 233
The Textile Industry 235
The Tobacco Industry 240
The Vegetable Oil Industry 242
The Woollen Industry 244
Mines & Minerals 246
Trade & Industry 248
Hydro-Electric Development 263
Irrigation 270
Agriculture 275
Improvement of Agricultural Marketing 285
Indian Council of Agricultural Research 291
Food and Famine 293
Fisheries 298
Public Health 305
Railways 311
Posts & Telegraphs 322
Broadcasting 327
British Broadcasting Corporation 330
Civil Aviation 331
Roads 334
Inland Waterways 336
Ports 337
Overseas Communications Service 344
Government of India 345
The Constitution of India 349
The Political Map .. .. .. *Facing page* 352
Government of India Personnel 390
Review of the year 404
Some Notable dates (April 1950-March 1951) .. 409
Assam State 410
Bihar State 415
Bombay State 420
Madhya Pradesh 429
Madras State 436
Orissa State 442
Punjab State 446
Uttar Pradesh 453

CONTENTS—*Contd.*

	Page
West Bengal State	471
Former Princely States	478
Hyderabad State	484
Jammu & Kashmir State	487
The State of Madhya Bharat	488
Mysore State	492
The Patiala & East Punjab States Union	493
Rajasthan State	494
The State of Saurashtra	496
Travancore-Cochin Union	497
Chief Commissioners' States	500
Scheduled Castes and Tribes	507
Indian Representatives Abroad	508
Indian Trade Representatives Abroad	509
Foreign & Commonwealth Representatives	510
Trade Commissioner Service	516
Weights and Measures	518
Indian Standard Time	520
Foreign Possessions in India	520
Akhil Bharat Hindu Mahasabha	524
The Indian National Congress	529
The Muslims	550
The Sikhs	552
The Left Wing in Indian Politics	554
The Women's Movement	566
Rotary	570
Freemasonry	571
Bharat Scouts and Guides	573
Societies : Literary, Scientific, Social, Religious and Political, Commercial and Industrial and Medical and Nursing	574
Church Organisation	589
Clubs	598
Sports	599
Some Important Reports	604
A Tourist's Guide	613

PAKISTAN

The Background of Pakistan	621
Physiography	622
The People	623
Festivals	624
Language and Literature	624
Fine Arts	626
Arts & Handicrafts	626
Archæology & Architecture	627
The New Constitution	628
Government of Pakistan Personnel	629
Constituent Assembly	634
Pakistan Representatives Abroad	635
Foreign Representatives in Pakistan	636
Education	639
Public Health	640
The Legal System	642
Post and Telegraph Rates	643
Civil Aviation	646
The Press	647
Radio Pakistan	648
Banking	648
The State Bank of Pakistan	649
Control of Capital Issue	650
Railways	650
Road Transport	651
Water Transport	652
The Ports	653
Chambers of Commerce	655
Surveys	655
Forests	656
Food and Agriculture	657
Livestock	660
Fisheries	660
Marketing and Co-operation	662
Development Schemes	663
Irrigation	665
Mines & Minerals	666
Industries	667
Labour	671
Foreign Trade	678
The Budget (1951-52)	684
East Bengal Province	686
North-West Frontier Province	689
The Punjab Province	693
Sind Province	697
Baluchistan	702
Karachi Administration	703
The States of Pakistan	704
Administrative Services	706
Armed Forces	707
Associations, Clubs	709
A Tourist's Guide	709
A Review of the Year	710
Who's Who in India	713
Who's Who in Pakistan	861

BOMBAY'S

Leading

HOUSE

for

★ PAPER

★ BOARDS

★ ALUMINIUM FOILS

of Every Description

ESTD. 1890

GRAMS : " PAPERPORT "

TELEPHONES : 24407 (4 lines), 21931 (2 lines)

ABDULLABHAI FIDAALLI & CO.

24, SUTAR CHAWL
BOMBAY 2

★

18, PRINCESS STREET
BOMBAY 2

P. O. Box No. 351

INDEX TO ADVERTISERS.

	Page
Abdullabhai Fidaalli & Co.	xii
Ahmed Oomerbhoy	viii
Akbarally Cassim & Co.	620
Bank of Indore Ltd.	880
Batliboi & Co.	*Facing page* 892
Bombay Tin Printers	878
British India General Insurance Co.	*Back Cover*
Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China	*Inside Front Cover*
Clyde Blowers, Ltd.	872
Cooper Engineering Ltd.	*Facing Page* 228
Fairey Aviation Co., Ltd.	*Inside Back Cover*
Frontier Co-operative Bank Ltd.	620
General Accident Fire & Life Assurance Corp. Ltd.	ii
Gotan Lime Syndicate	iii
Grindlays Bank Ltd.	872
Habib Bank Ltd.	ix
Hindustan Chemical Works Ltd.	878
Hyderabad State Bank	874
J. K. Industries	452
Jayant Mehta & Co.	880
Jayems Engineering Co.	xiv
Kashmir	612
Killick Nixon & Co., Ltd.	*Long Edge*
Kirloskar Bros., Ltd.	*Facing Inside Back Cover*
Mahindra & Mahindra Ltd.	712
Mill Stores Trading Co. of India Ltd.	884
Mysore Paper Mills Ltd.	viii
Mysore State Industries	vi
Narotamdas Bhau	884
New Citizen Bank of India Ltd.	876
New India Mosaic & Marble Co. Ltd.	ix
New Jack Printing Works	iv
Noble Plastic Works	884
Praja-Sewak	66
Prerana Corporation	882
Siemens Bros. & Co., Ltd.	874
Standard Rolling Shutters & Engineering Works	v
State Hotel, Aurangabad	viii
Tata Sons Ltd.	*Facing Page* 229
Ugar Sugar Works Ltd.	ix
United Commercial Bank Ltd.	v
United India Life Assurance Co., Ltd.	882
Vanguard Insurance Co., Ltd.	876
Wengers Ltd.	880
West End Hotel Ltd.	878
Western India Life Insurance Co., Ltd.	884

Telephones : 34832 & 27671.

Telegrams : "JAYEMS", BOMBAY.

Jayems ENGINEERING CO.

WARDEN HOUSE, SIR PHEROZESHAH MEHTA ROAD, FORT
BOMBAY

BRANCHES:

AHMEDABAD · BANGALORE · BARODA · BEZWADA · CALCUTTA · COIMBATORE · DELHI · JAIPUR
KANPUR · LUDHIANA · MADRAS · MATHURAI · NAGPUR · PATNA · RAJKOT · SECUNDERABAD (Deccan).

ENGINEERS, IMPORTERS AND EXPORTERS

SOLE AGENTS IN INDIA FOR :

1. Russell Newbery & Co., Ltd., Dagenham, Essex, England - - DIESEL ENGINES (VERTICAL).
2. Beechey, Many & Co., Ltd., Keighley, England - - - DIESEL ENGINES (HORIZONTAL).
3. Campbell Oil Engine Co., Ltd., Cardiff, England - - - DIESEL ENGINES (HORIZONTAL).
4. Werkhuizen Leon Claeys, P. V. B. A., Zedelgem, Belgium - - - DIESEL ENGINES (VERTICAL).
5. Foster Yates & Thom Ltd., Blackburn, England - LANCASHIRE BOILERS, STEAM ENGINES, ETC.
6. Bolton's Superheaters & Pipe Works Ltd., Stockport, England - - SUPERHEATERS & PIPES, ETC.
7. William Green & Co., Ltd., Sheffield, England - - - ECONOMISERS (GILLED TUBES).
8. Vereinigte Economiser-Werke, G.m.b.H., Hilden-Rhein, Germany - ECONOMISERS (PLAIN TUBES).
9. Hartley & Sugden Ltd., Halifax, England - - - - - - VERTICAL BOILERS.
10. Triangle Products Ltd., Manchester 15, England - - - - - ARC WELDING SETS.
11. Electrix Ltd., Dagenham, England - - SPRAY PAINTING UNITS & VACUUM CLEANERS.
12. Biax Tools (Export) Ltd., London W. 6, England - - - - FLEXIBLE SHAFT MACHINES.
13. Tarpen Engineering Co., Ltd., London S. W. 3, England - - - ELECTRIC WOOD PLANERS.
14. Steyr-Daimler-Puch AG., Vienna, Austria - - TRACTORS & AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS.
15. Leonh Herbert, Schielestrausse 7-9, West Germany - - - - RUBBER MACHINERY.
16. Adolf Baumgarten, Porta Westfalica, West Germany - ROLLER FLOUR MILLING MACHINERY.
17. Malv Ltd., Milano 133, Italy - - - - - - - GLASS MACHINERY.
18. Norva Maskinfabrik A-S, Copenhagen N. V., Denmark - - - - LAUNDRY MACHINERY.
19. Dolmar Maschinen-Fabrik, G.m.b.H., Kedenburgster, Germany - - - CHAIN SAWS.
20. Jayems Beechey & Co., Ltd., Bombay - - - - - - DIESEL ENGINES.
21. Khushalani Russell Newbery & Co., Ltd., Bombay - - - - DIESEL ENGINES.
22. Ste Ame Ateliers De Construction La Meuse, Liege, Belgium - - - DIESEL ENGINES.
23. Cooper Engineering Works, Satara - - - - - - SHAPING MACHINES.
24. W. J. Meddings Ltd., Slough, England - - - - - - DRILLING MACHINES.
25. Bertoni & Cotti, S.p.A., Copparo, Italy - - - - - - GARAGE EQUIPMENT.
26. Miracle Mills Ltd., England - - - - - - MIRACLE MILLS & BENDERS.
27. Kolsch Folzer-werke, A.G., Germany - - - - - CHILLED CAST IRON ROLLS.
28. F. M. Parkin (Sheffield) Ltd., England - - - - - - STEEL & ALLOYS.
29. Agron Limited, England - - - - - - - - LOG SAWS.
30. Soenen, P.V.B.A. Roeselare, Belgium - - - - - - - POWER PRESSES.

The Republic

OF

INDIA

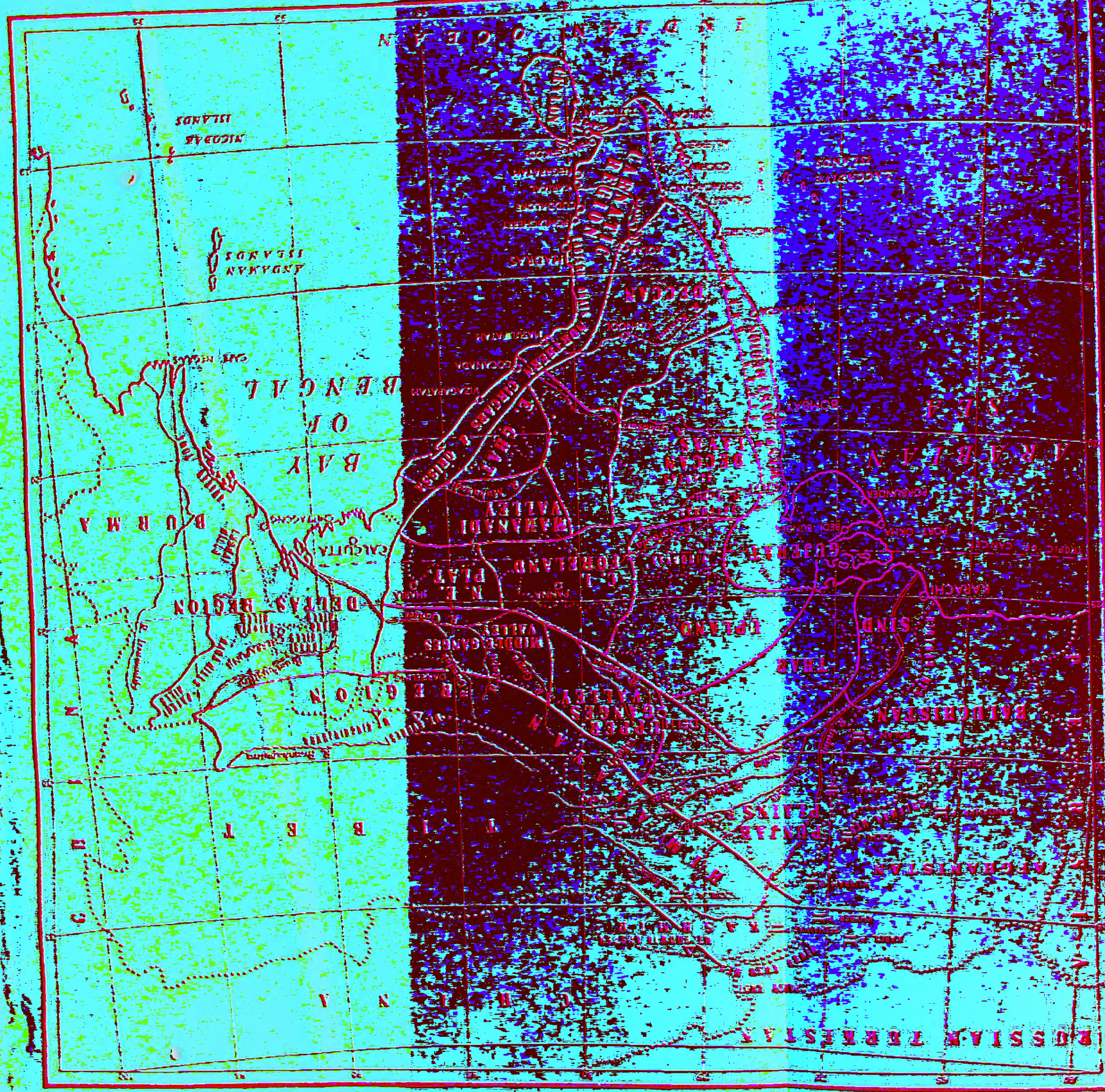
IQBAL LIBRARY
The University of Kashmir
Acc. No. [redacted]
Author [redacted]
Title [redacted]

G 923.254 2047.
M963K.

MURRAY K. K.
Autobiography.

JAMMU & KASHMIR UNIVERSITY
LIBRARY
Kashmir Division - Srinagar

PHYSICAL MAP OF INDIA AND PAKISTAN



PHYSIOGRAPHY

GEOGRAPHICALLY the mass of land today called India consists of the territories contained in the Union of India, the Portuguese possessions of Goa, Daman, Diu and the French possessions of Mahe, Karikal, Pondicherry and Yanam.

The Republic of India consists of the following 28 States: Assam, Bihar, Bombay, Madhya Pradesh (formerly called the C.P. and Berar), Madras, Orissa, Punjab (East Punjab), Uttar Pradesh (the U.P.), West Bengal, Hyderabad, Jammu and Kashmir, Madhya Bharat, Mysore, Patiala and East Punjab States Union, Rajasthan, Saurashtra, Travancore-Cochin, Vindhya Pradesh, Ajmer (Ajmer-Merwara), Bilaspur, Bhopal, Coorg, Delhi, Himachal Pradesh, Kutch, Manipur, Tripura and the Andaman and Nicobar Islands.

In shape India is like a triangle with its base resting on the Himalaya Mountains in the north and its apex running far into the ocean in the south. At the southern extremity the triangle tapers with a pear-shaped curve to a point called Cape Comorin.

India lies entirely to the north of the equator. From south to north including Kashmir, it stretches from 8° north latitude to 37° north latitude, with the Tropic of Cancer cutting it roughly into two halves. West to east it stretches from about 66° 20′ east longitude to 97° east longitude.

Broadly speaking India is shut off from the mainland of Asia by the Himalaya Mountains, the highest mountain range in the world. Going from west to east along the country's land frontier are Pakistan, Chinese Turkestan, Tibet, China, Burma and Pakistan. In the south, the country is surrounded on all sides by water—the Arabian Sea in the west, the Indian Ocean in the south and the Bay of Bengal in the east.

India is about 1,700 miles from east to west, and about 2,000 miles from north to south. Its land frontier is about 8,200 miles long and the sea frontier about 3,500 miles. The total area involved is 1,138,814 sq. miles. The total population is 356,891,624, which is a little less than one-sixth of the population of the whole world.

Ports.—Compared with the size of the country, the coast-line is short, as there are few bays or inlets. Hence there are also very few harbours. The fact is the west coast is rocky and the sea is deep near the coast, while in the east the sea is extremely shallow so that big ocean-going ships have to weigh anchor at some distance from the shore. The only so-called natural harbours are Bombay and Goa. While Madras, Vishakapatnam and Port Okha are examples of purely artificial harbours built by human enterprise.

The principal ports in India are (going from west to east along the coast), Bedi Bunder, Port Okha, Porbandar, Surat, Bombay, Marmagao, Mangalore, Kozhikode (Calicut), Cochin, Alleppey, Quilon, Tuticorin, Dhanushkodi, Nagapattinam, Karikal, Cuddalore, Pondicherry, Madras, Masulipatam, Coconada, Vishakapatnam and Calcutta. Of these, Karikal and Pondicherry belong to France, Marmugao belongs to Portugal, while the rest are in the Republic of India. It may also be mentioned that a new harbour is under construction at Kandla in Kutch.

THE MOUNTAIN WALL

India can be divided into three natural regions as shown in the physical map—1. the mountain wall, 2. the Plain of Hindustan, and 3. the Indian Plateau.

Let us take the mountain wall first. From the Pamir Knot in the far north two mountain ranges radiate one in the south-east and easterly direction called the Himalayas, and the other in a south-western direction reaching almost down to the sea, called the Sulaiman Range in the north and the Kirthar Range in the south. In the east the mountain wall between India and Burma is called by different names in different places. In the north, for instance, it is known as the Patkoi Hills, further south as the Naga Hills. In Assam it is called Jaintia, Khasi and Garo. Southward are the Lushai Hills, then lastly there are the Arakan Yoma which finally reach the sea at Cape Negrais and continue in the Andaman and Nicobar Islands.

Of the various ranges which constitute the mountain wall of India the Himalayas are the most note-worthy. Extending like a scimitar for a distance of 1,500 miles along the northern frontiers of the country they form the loftiest mountain range in the whole world, and contain many of the highest mountain peaks, Mount Everest 29,000 ft., Mount Godwin Austen 28,250 ft., and Kanchenjunga 28,146 ft.

Passes.—There are no easy ways in and out through the mountain wall which shuts off India from the rest of Asia, but there are a few difficult passes. In the very north are the Zojila Pass and the Shipki Pass which lead out of Kashmir and Punjab respectively. Then from Shipki right down to Darjeeling there is no route across the mountain wall. Across the Burma frontier again there are a few routes but they are of little use for purposes of communication.

The following is a more detailed description of the mountain region.

In the east on the border of Burma the mountain wall is much lower. Here it can more accurately be described as a range of hills rather than of mountains. This region is wet, forested and very thinly populated. The region round about Cherrapunji in Assam has the highest rain-fall in the world.

Then from Darjeeling to Kashmir are the Himalayas proper, over 1,500 miles in length and 150 to 200 miles in breadth. The Himalayas are thus not a mountain chain in the proper sense of the word. They can be described as a series of parallel but converging ranges intersected by valleys and big plateaus. On the whole, the slopes of the mountains facing India are very steep, while those facing north are much more gentle. We say, on the whole, because though the eastern Himalayas (in West Bengal and Bihar) rise abruptly from the plains, in the west (western Uttar Pradesh and the Punjab) the rise from the plains is a little more gradual. Hence the Himalayas themselves can be further sub-divided into three parallel zones, the Great Himalayas with an average elevation of 20,000 ft., always covered with snow; the Lesser Himalayas, the middle range, with an average elevation of 15,000 feet; and finally the Outer Himalayas lying between the Lesser Himalayas and the plains with an average elevation of about 3,500 feet. The last are a sort of foot-hills to the Great Himalayas, and are usually described as forming the sub-Himalayan region, a region which extends from eastern Bihar to the Punjab all along the Plain of Hindustan.

In the north the altitude of the range is much lower: there are few peaks which exceed a height of 20,000 feet. The Punjab Himalayas are comparatively dry, and the snow-line is much higher than elsewhere. The northern slopes are bare while the southern slopes are forested.

Two of the longitudinal valleys which separate the mountain ranges are worth a note. They are the Vale of Kashmir and the valley of Khatmandu in Nepal. Both the valleys are fertile, extensive and from a tourist's point of view a dream of beauty.

Thus it is clear the whole region possesses great variety in climate and a range of vegetation stretching from the tropics to the poles.

The north mountain wall has a tremendous influence on the physiography of the country. On the one hand it keeps out the bitterly cold winds which blow from Central Asia and Tibet during the winter, and on the other it intercepts the moisture laden winds which blow from the sea in the south so that the northern plains of the country have rain during the monsoon. Second, the melting snow and rain falling on the mountains go to form the chief source for the water of the rivers which flow from the Himalayas. Hence the rivers of Hindustan never go completely dry in the summer. In short, if Egypt is a gift of the Nile, the Plain of Hindustan is no less a gift of the Himalayas.

THE PLAIN OF HINDUSTAN

Geologically, the Ganges plain can be considered as the fore-deep of the mountains to the north of it. This fore-deep extends thousands of feet below the sea-level, though since its formation it has been filled in by deposit. In the east this deposit consists of alluvial material from the mountains, in the west it consists of material blown by the wind. All through the deposit is fine grained made up chiefly of muds and sands.

The Plain of Hindustan extends from the Bay of Bengal in the east to the Pakistan frontier in the west; that is to say, it is about 1,500 miles long and from 150 to 200 miles broad. Throughout this vast tract of land not a hill can be seen. The slope from the mountains to the sea is so gradual that about 100 miles from the mouth of the River Ganges the surface is no more than 500 feet above sea-level.

The Plain of Hindustan is probably the most important part of the country. For one thing, it contains some of the richest soil in the world. Second, it is on the Plain of Hindustan that the whole drama of race conflict and race assimilation was played out, a drama which finally shaped the political and cultural destiny of both India and its neighbour Pakistan.

Going into more detail the Plain of Hindustan is formed by the basins of three distinct river systems. In the far west are the Beas and Sutlej, tributaries of the Indus draining into the Arabian Sea. Further east is the River Ganges with its tributaries the Jamuna, Gogra, Rapti and Gandak which flows south-eastwards into the Bay of Bengal. The capital of the Indian Republic Delhi stands on the water-shed between the Indus and the Ganges river basins. The third of the three river systems, the Brahmaputra rises beyond the Himalayas, turns east and enters India at its eastern extremity and joins the Ganges before reaching the Bay of Bengal. The Brahmaputra has no important tributaries.



On the Himalayas these rivers are rushing, roaring torrents, cutting their way through steep and rocky gorges. But when they reach the vast plains they broaden out and wander slowly till they get to the sea. The land is so flat that the rivers sometimes leave their old beds and cut out new channels flooding the surrounding area.

The rivers of Hindustan are notable in three respects, 1. They give a constant supply of water, 2. The land through which they flow is broad, flat and fertile and eminently suitable for irrigation, 3. Because water flows perennially they are navigable through the greater part of the year.

As we go from west to east in the plain rainfall increases and so does the fertility of the soil.

The whole plain can be sub-divided according to climate into a number of natural regions There are first the plains of the north-west, comprising Punjab State, a dry area depending on the irrigation canals of the rivers Beas and Sutlej for its water. Second, there is the valley of the Upper Ganges covering the major part of Uttar Pradesh a comparatively dry region which depends for its cultivation on the irrigation canals of the Ganges and the Jamuna. Third, we have the valley

of the middle Ganges embracing the State of Bihar, which is an intermediate zone, with both wet and dry cultivation. As we go further east we have the lower valley of the Ganges, which includes the whole of West Bengal, a wet region with considerable rainfall growing rice and jute.

THE INDIAN PLATEAU

The third of the natural regions into which the country is divided is called the Indian Plateau because it comprises a three-sided table-land covering the whole of the country in the south except for two narrow coastal strips in the east and the west. The Indian Plateau is marked off from the Plain of Hindustan by a confused mass of hill ranges running with a general direction of east to west. Three of these ranges have been distinguished by the names of Vindhyas, Satpuras and Ajantas respectively. They stand from 1,500 feet to over 4,000 feet high and though pierced by road and railway at the present time were not easy to cross in the old days and thus formed a barrier of hill and jungle between the northern and the southern portions of the country.

The Indian Plateau is higher in the west and the south than in the east and north. Along the western and eastern edge of the plateau run the Western and Eastern Ghats. They start southward, from the extremities of the Vindhya mountain system and run along the western and eastern coasts of the country and unite to form a sort of upheaved angle towards their southern extremity. The Western Ghats run through the State of Bombay and ascend to an average height of about 3,000 feet while some of the peaks are anything between 5,000 feet and 9,000 feet high. The Eastern Ghats stretch down the State of Madras and have an average elevation of 1,500 feet. The inner triangular plateau which the Western and Eastern Ghats form far in the south is seamed with little ranges of hills exceeding 4,000 feet in height the best known among which are the Nilgiris. It is on the Nilgiris that Ootacamund the famous summer capital of Madras State stands.

Drainage Systems.—There are three systems of drainage in the Indian Plateau—one towards the north, the second towards the west and the third towards the east. The drainage from the northern or Vindhya edge of the plateau falls into the Ganges. Two rivers Narmada and Tapti carry the rainfall of the southern slopes of the Vindhya and Satpura mountains respectively in almost parallel lines into the Arabian Sea. Further south, as we have already stated, the plateau is much higher in the west than the east. So the drainage has to make its way across the whole breadth of the plateau eastwards until it falls into the Bay of Bengal. The most important rivers are the Mahanadi, the Godavari, the Krishna and the Cavery. These rivers differ from the rivers of the Plain of Hindustan in three ways; 1. They are fed only by the monsoon rains and therefore do not yield a constant supply of water, 2. Their valleys are less suitable for irrigation, 3. And finally, they are not navigable for certain seasons in the year when parts of the river dry up.

From a geological point of view the Indian Plateau consists mainly of very old crystalline rocks—much older than the Himalayan fold mountains. On some of the edges of the plateau in the north-east for instance, are areas of sedimentary rocks from which the country obtains most of its coal. About nine-tenths of the coal resources of India lie in Jharia in Bihar and Ranigunj in West Bengal, though coal-bearing beds are also found in the valley of the Godavari and the northern slopes of the Vindhyas. The north-west of the plateau is covered by vast stretches of lava called the Deccan lavas. This region is one of the largest areas of lava in the world, covering as it does an area of 250,000 square miles with a total thickness of several thousand feet. In spite of the great extent of the lavas there are few or no signs of volcano. In the rest of the Plateau valuable minerals occur here and there among old crystalline rocks. Gold is obtained in Kolar, manganese in Vishakapatnam, Mysore and Madhya Pradesh, copper and iron in Bihar and Orissa, mica in Madras and the south-east. The point about diamonds is of some interest. They occur in sand-stones or conglomerate in Panna in Vindhya Pradesh or Kurnool in Madras, though no diamond bearing igneous rocks are found.

Natural Regions.—From the point of view of climate and vegetation the Indian Plateau can be divided into ten natural regions. There are first of all the coastal regions round the plateau. In the north covering part of the State of Bombay is the Gujarat region, moderately dry and hilly in places. Further south is the west coast region covering part of Bombay and part of Madras, narrow and wet. In the east is the Carnatic or Tamil region comprising part of Madras, moderately wet but wider than in the west. In the north is what is called the Northern Circars region covering part of Andhra and part of Orissa, also moderately wet. Then there are the dry regions lying to the north of the Vindhya mountains sloping downwards to the plains of the Ganges. There are the Thar or Great Indian Desert, the Rajasthan uplands dry and hilly, and the Central Indian Plateau comprising part of Madhya Pradesh. Finally there is a third group of regions which can be distinguished, all lying in the Indian Peninsula proper. These are first the southern part of the plateau covering the whole of Mysore and parts of Madras and Bombay, dry, somewhat barren and thinly populated; second, the Deccan lavas region in the north-west, containing parts of Bombay, Hyderabad and Madhya Pradesh dry but with fertile black soil suitable for cotton and moderately thickly populated; and lastly, the north-eastern Plateau covering parts of Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and Orissa. This last mentioned region has moderate rain-fall, is thinly populated, but thickly forested. The inhabitants are mainly concentrated in two river valleys.

Ceylon is the only important island lying off the coast of India to which it is joined by a line of sand flats collectively called Adam's Bridge. But Ceylon is politically separate from the sub-continent. Two groups of very small islands in the Bay of Bengal, the Andamans and the Nicobars, and one group in the Arabian Sea the Laccadives are part of the Republic of India. So is the quasi-island of Kutch off the Kathiawar Peninsula in western India. Kutch is a dry, rocky, treeless country.

VEGETATION

India is thickly populated and so over a greater part of the country the natural vegetation has been removed. The country has no distinctive botanical features peculiar to itself. Where the rain-fall is more than 80 inches a year there are ever green forests on the hills. The wood from these forests is hard but the forests have not yet been commercially exploited. These evergreen forests are chiefly found on the slopes of the Western Ghats, the wetter eastern parts of the Himalayas up to a level of 5,000 feet, and in Assam.

Where the rain-fall is less than 80 inches but more than 40 we have what are called the monsoon forests, so-called because the trees in these forests lose their leaves in the dry season. The monsoon forests are very valuable, because they contain two of the most useful kinds of tree, the teak and the sal. The teak is found chiefly in the western parts of the country while the sal is obtained in the lower slopes of the Himalayas and the north-east of the Plateau. Where the rain-fall is less than 40 inches, in the drier parts of the country we find small thorny trees, sometimes so small that they are more like bushes than like trees. In the driest parts where the land is desert or semi-desert even bushes cannot grow. There we find plants with thick fleshy stems and long roots. As we go up the mountains too the vegetation changes. In the higher reaches of the mountains, above 5,000 feet in the south, and 3,000 feet in the north the forests are similar to those found in temperate lands. Some of the trees have broad leaves and are like the oak while others are tall and have needle-shaped leaves like the pine.

On the highest parts of the mountains it is too cold and too dry for trees to grow and so we find only small bushes and short grass.

Along the sea-coasts and in the great river deltas where the land is flat and muddy grows a kind of tree called mangrove. These trees are most frequent in the deltas of the River Ganges where they are called Sundarbans.

There is not much grass land in India though in the hills in the monsoon grass patches can be seen.

The main cultivated plants include rice, wheat, pulses and grains. Among the important seeds grown are castor, sesamum and ground-nut. The chief fruit trees include mango, coco-nut, areca-nut and certain citrus fruit. Apples, peaches, pears, apricots and walnuts are confined chiefly to the Himalaya valleys. There are tea plantations over large areas on the mountains in the north-east and south, while coffee, cardamom, pepper and rubber are extensively grown in the south. In some of the damper regions the cinchona is successfully cultivated. (For more detailed description see section on agriculture.)

ANIMALS

Just as natural vegetation has disappeared over the greater part of the land so have a great many wild animals. The lion, for instance, was not uncommon within historical times in the north. Today it is confined wholly, to the Gir forest in Junagadh in Saurashtra.

The most famous among the wild animals which survive are the tiger and the elephant. The leopard or panther is more common than the tiger and equally destructive of life and property. The cheetah or the hunting leopard is found only in the Deccan and is generally trained for hunting the antelope. Other wild Indian animals of the cat family are the marbled cat and the jungle cat.

In the open country-side wolves are plentiful and usually prey on sheep. The Indian fox is comparatively scarce but the jackal is very common. The wild dog is found in the denser jungles and generally hunts in packs. Among other dogs are the pariah common in the south, and the grey hound used for hunting.

The black bear is common wherever rocky hills and forests occur. It lives on ants, honey and fruit and may often prove dangerous. The Himalayan bear which is found only in the north, stays in the mountains during the summer but comes lower down during the winter.

The rhinocerii found in the country are of three different types, two have a single horn and one has double. The rhinocerii are commonest in the Brahmaputra valley and in the Sundarbans. With the rhinoceros might be mentioned the crocodile which can be very dangerous specially in the rivers of the north. The wild hog is also well-known in certain parts of the country and is very destructive of crops.

In the remote parts of the deserts of Kutch is found the wild ass but its contacts with man are few. Many wild varieties of sheep and goat are met with in the mountain ranges of the north.

The antelope proper is more widely distributed. On the coasts of Gujarat and Orissa, for instance, a herd of does accompanied by a single buck is a common sight. The gazelle can also be found almost everywhere. The sambar is confined to hill forests, while the spotted deer is considered to be the most beautiful animal of the Indian jungle.

In the Western Ghats, and in the hill jungles of Assam and Madhya Pradesh is found the bison. It is a fierce animal and almost as dangerous to hunt as the tiger. Akin to the bison is the wild buffalo very common in Assam.

The rat and the mouse are a perpetual nuisance. The bandicoots some of which can be as long as 2 feet burrow under stores and godowns and are often deadly to plants, fruit or grain.

The reptiles abound in garden and jungle and even intrude into dwelling places specially during the rains. Thousands of people die every year in the country-side of snake-bite. The most dreaded of the reptiles is the cobra. There is another variety called Russel's viper whose bite is equally fatal. Generally speaking the salt-water snakes are dangerous while the fresh-water ones are harmless. The bigger variety scorpion which abounds in parts of Madras is a domestic terror.

Of all the wild animals in the country the elephant is the most interesting as well as the most useful. It generally lives in the wilder parts of the monsoon forests and being an intelligent animal can be trained to do heavy work such as dragging great logs of wood, or arranging them in neat piles. The elephant is also excellent as a transport animal as it can push its way through the thickest jungle where roads cannot be built.

Domestic Animals.—So much for the wild animals. Among the domestic animals the most useful are the oxen. It is estimated that there are about 136·372 million cattle in India. Milk is not a staple article of food and the oxen are chiefly used for ploughing or drawing carts. The bullocks are more valuable than the cows though in certain parts like Uttar Pradesh dairy-farming is an important industry. One handicap is that in most areas fodder has to be specially grown for the cattle.

There are 40·618 million buffaloes in the country. The buffalo is stronger than the bullock and is chiefly used for ploughing. The she-buffalo is the typical dairy animal.

There are 37·734 million sheep in the country. But they are a very poor specimen and do not give good wool or meat. Sheep are most numerous in Madras and live chiefly on waste land which is not good enough for cattle. Goats (46·469 million) are found everywhere because it does not take much to keep them alive. They can feed on the poorest grass or shrub and so find enough to eat even in the driest parts of the country.

There are 3·236 million horses, ponies and donkeys, most of which are used as draught animals. Mules, donkeys and camels are also used for purposes of transport: mules and donkeys on the hilly parts, and camels in the sandy desert. The total number of live-stock in the country is 264·429 millions.

The birds of India though not as gorgeous as those of some other tropical lands deserve mention. The parrot is easily the most beautiful of the Indian birds. The peacock is another beautiful bird, while the maina like the parrot lives happily in a cage and talks well. Of the vulture there are four varieties which include the common scavenger. There are many types of eagle too and some of the falcons can be trained for hawking. A bird much sought after for its plumage is the king-fisher and among the birds which are hunted for their flesh are pigeons, ducks, partridges, plover, quail and snipe. The jungle fowl, however, is not considered good for eating.

There are many beautiful butterflies in India, while among the more useful insects are the bee, the silk-worm, the *coceus laca*, that is, the insect which gives lac. Certain varieties of Indian moth and ant are very destructive. Locust invasions are not frequent but when they appear they leave complete destruction behind them. Mosquitoes abound everywhere.

In India fish is eaten fresh as methods of fish preservation are either primitive or not practised. Among the edible Indian fishes are the carp family and the cat fishes. But the most delicious is the hilsa which is also a rich food. A fish which is found in all hill streams is the mahseer. (For a more detailed discussion see section on fisheries).

INDIA, PAKISTAN

The partition of what was formerly known as British India took place on August 15, 1947. Broadly speaking, the areas in the north-west and the north-east inhabited predominantly by people belonging to the Muslim religion were cut off and formed into a separate independent state. Only two provinces were primarily affected by the decision to partition the sub-continent, and a third to a smaller degree. The two which were primarily affected were the Punjab in the west and Bengal in the east. The old Punjab was divided into West Punjab (now called Punjab) which became a part of Pakistan and East Punjab (also called Punjab), which became a part of India. The old Bengal was divided into East Bengal which became a part of Pakistan and West Bengal which became a part of India.

The Province of Punjab (Pakistan) includes the whole of the old Multan and the Rawalpindi Divisions and the Districts of Gujranwala, Sheikhupura and Sialkot of the old Lahore Division. The State of Punjab (India) includes the whole of the old Jullundur and Ambala Divisions and the Amritsar Disitrct of the old Lahore Division. The Gurdaspur and Lahore districts of the old Lahore division were divided between the two new provinces.

In the east the Province of East Bengal includes the whole of the old Chittagong and the Dacca Divisions and the Districts of Rangpur, Bogra, Rajshahi, Pabna and Khulna. The State of West Bengal includes the whole of the old Burdwan Division and the Districts of Calcutta, the 24 Parganas, Murshidabad and Darjeeling. The old Districts of Nadia, Jessore, Dinajpur, Jalpaiguri and Malda were divided between the two provinces.

The old Province of Assam too was affected to a minor degree. Except four thanas the whole of the District of Sylhet was transferred to the newly created Province of East Bengal.

THE FRONTIERS

THE frontiers of India consist of Tibet, Nepal, Sikkim, Bhutan, and, of course, Pakistan, while Assam in India and Eastern Pakistan have a common frontier with Burma.

TIBET

Tibet has an area of about 470,000 square miles and a population of about 3 millions. The Government of Tibet consists of the minor Dalai Lama who is the temporal and spiritual head of the State with his seat at the capital Lhasa. He has an adviser who is assisted by a Council of Ministers. There is also a National Assembly consisting of monks and lay officials whose functions are advisory.

The relations between China and Tibet may be described as follows. From the conquest of Tibet by the Manchu dynasty of China in the 18th century the Chinese maintained officers at Lhasa (military escort limited to 300) though their authority decreased to a merely nominal suzerainty. Following the Chinese revolution of 1912 the Tibetans evicted all Chinese officials and troops. In 1914 a conference of representatives of Tibet, China and Britain met in Simla and agreed on a convention to govern the relations of the three parties. This convention divided Tibet into two parts Tibet proper (outer Tibet) which was to be autonomous under Chinese suzerainty and inner Tibet under Chinese authority subject to certain already existing Tibetan rights. The Chinese accepted all the terms of the convention except the one that related to the boundaries of inner and outer Tibet. Upon this convention all subsequent relations between Tibet and Britain were based. On the death of the 13th Dalai Lama in 1933 a Chinese condolence mission was admitted to Lhasa, and in 1934 a Chinese representative was appointed at the Tibetan Capital. Tibet also admitted a complimentary Chinese delegation on the installation of the 14th Dalai Lama in February 1950.

Towards the end of the civil war in China between the Kuomintang and the Communists the Tibetan authorities asked the Chinese mission in July 1949 to leave Tibet for fear of causing complications. On July 20 the mission left *via* India after all the formalities of leave taking had been observed. But the Chinese Government (then represented by the Kuomintang) were never reconciled to their departure and proceeded to instal a Panchen Lama (spiritual head) at Sining in the Chinese province of Tsinghai. The candidature was vigorously opposed by the Tibetan authorities in Lhasa.

India's relations with Tibet (mainly an inheritance from the British) is as already noted, governed by the Simla Convention of 1914. India recognizes Chinese suzerainty over inner Tibet (that part of Tibet which is nearest India) including Lhasa, Shigatse and Chamdo, the last of which apparently the Chinese had not recognized as falling within inner Tibet. India is allowed to maintain an agent in Lhasa and establish trade agencies at Gyantse and Yatung for the protection of which a military escort not exceeding 225 is authorized to be stationed along the Kalimpong (West Bengal) Lhasa trade route.

India's trade relations with Tibet are very close. Tibet's population is mainly concentrated along the southern wall of the mountain plateau especially round Lhasa and Gyantse. India is thus the nearest and the most convenient market place for Tibetan goods, the Indian terminals of the trade being Kalimpong, Almora and Leh. The value of the annual Tibetan trade is about 3 crores, two-thirds of which passes through India. The imports from Tibet include wool, borax, salt and musk and the exports woollen and cotton textiles, grain, glass, sugar and tobacco. It may be added that there is a proposal to build a motorable road to connect Tibet with China. If this materializes part of the trade may be directed to China.

After the victory of the Communists in China an attempt was made to regularize the relations between China and Tibet. The Chinese delegation had left, as already reported, in July 1949.

The whole history of the subsequent developments is a little confused although the main lines are fairly clear. These may be summarized as follows. By mutual agreement a delegation from Tibet tried to get into touch with the Peking Government *via* India and Hong Kong. The delegation which arrived in India in the middle of May 1950 was however held up owing to a number of difficulties such as visa. Early in October the Chinese Government took military action and Chinese troops entered the eastern parts of Tibet. The Government of India sent a note of protest to China on October 26 against military intervention and expressed amazement and regret at Chinese action. In its answer the Chinese Government declared that Tibet was an internal question and that Chinese action sprang from a desire to liberate the people and safeguard Chinese frontiers. China also complained of foreign interference with the Tibetan delegation while in India. The Government of India regarded the Chinese answer as unsatisfactory and on November 3 advised the Tibetan delegation which had meanwhile got into touch with the Chinese Embassy in New Delhi not to proceed to Peking. Meanwhile the Chinese armies which had reached as far east as Chamdo turned south and after a time stopped military operations. It may be added that troop movements had probably taken place in a region the sovereignty of which had long been disputed between Tibet and China. On November 7 Tibet appealed to the U.N.O. The Tibetan note explained that Tibet never agreed to the Chinese claim to suzerainty. The nominal suzerainty conceded to China in 1914 was not enforceable as the Chinese Government had not ratified the treaty. The complaint was taken up by the South American republic El Salvador who formally requested the General Assembly on November 15 that the question might be placed on the agenda. The Salvadorian resolution also asked the Assembly to condemn China's aggression and called for the appointment of a committee to study what measures the U.N. could take. The U.N., however, decided on November 24 to postpone all discussion.

On November 17 changes of a drastic nature in the structure of the Government of Tibet took place in Lhasa when the minor Dalai Lama was installed with full powers as the temporal ruler of Tibet and the Regent retired. Negotiations with China were taken up from where they were interrupted. It was reported that Sawong Lama, the President of the Tibetan Assembly who was acting as adviser to the Dalai Lama was in favour of a peaceful solution through discussion. The Dalai Lama asked that the Chinese should withdraw their forces from the eastern provinces as a token of good faith and to facilitate settlement. The Chinese forces were consequently withdrawn. It was also reported that the Tibetan Government had dismissed a number of high ranking officials. The new mission which the Government appointed consisted of Kungang Sey (Commander-in-Chief), Thrunik Chempo Lantra, a Lama of the highest status, Yabsey Sey, Rinchen Sadhu Tsang, Naboo Samdo Photang and Rimsi Samdo Photang. The last two were to go to China via Chamdo, while the first two were to have a preliminary meeting with the Chinese Ambassador in New Delhi. It was expected that a settlement would be effected on the lines of an autonomous Tibet under Chinese suzerainty. China would look after defence and foreign affairs but would station only a token force in Lhasa. It was also learnt that Indian interests would not be affected.

On May 23, 1951 China and Tibet signed an agreement. The points of the agreement are as follows :

(1) The Tibetan people shall unite and drive out imperialist aggressive forces from Tibet so that the Tibetan people shall return to the big family of the motherland—the People's Republic of China.

(2) The local Government of Tibet shall actively assist the People's Liberation Army to enter Tibet and consolidate the natural defences.

(3) In accordance with the policy towards nationalities laid down in the common programme of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference, the Tibetan people have the right of exercising regional autonomy under the unified leadership of the Central People's Government.

(4) The Central authorities will not alter the existing political system in Tibet. The Central authorities will also not alter the established status, functions and powers of the Dalai Lama. Officials of various ranks shall hold office as usual.

(5) The established status, functions and powers of the Panchen Lama shall be maintained.

(6) By the established status, functions and powers of the Dalai Lama and of the Panchen Lama, are meant the status and powers of the 13th Dalai Lama and of the ninth Panchen Lama when they were in friendly and amicable relations with each other.

(7) The policy of freedom of religious belief laid down in the common programme of the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference, shall be carried out. The religious beliefs, customs, habits of the Tibetan people shall be respected and Lama monasteries shall be protected. The Central authorities will not effect a change in the income of the monasteries.

(8) Tibetan troops shall be reorganised, step by step, into the People's Liberation Army and become a part of the national defence forces of the People's Republic of China.

(9) The spoken and written language and school education, etc., of the Tibetan nationality shall be developed, step by step, in accordance with the actual conditions in Tibet.

(10) Tibetan agriculture, livestock raising, industry and commerce shall be developed step by step, and the people's livelihood shall be improved, step by step, in accordance with the actual conditions in Tibet.

(11) In matters related to various reforms in Tibet there will be no compulsion on the part of the Central authorities. The local Government of Tibet should carry out reforms of their own accord and when the people raise demands for reform they shall be solved by means of consultation with the leading people of Tibet.

(12) In so far as former pro-imperialist and pro-Kuomintang officials resolutely sever relations with imperialism and the Kuomintang and do not engage in sabotage or resistance they may continue to hold office irrespective of their past.

(13) The People's Liberation Army entering Tibet shall abide by all the above mentioned policies and shall also be fair in all buying and selling and shall not arbitrarily take a needle or thread from the people.

(14) The Central People's Government shall have the centralised handling of all external affairs of the area of Tibet and there will be peaceful co-existence with neighbouring countries and the establishment and development of fair commercial and trading relations with them on the basis of equality, mutual benefit and mutual respect for territory and sovereignty.

(15) To ensure implementation of this agreement the Central People's Government shall set up a military and administrative committee and a military headquarters in Tibet and apart from the personnel sent there by the Central People's Government, shall absorb as many local Tibetan personnel as possible to take part in the work.

Local Tibetan personnel taking part in the military and administrative committee may include patriotic elements from the local Government of Tibet, various districts and various principal monasteries; the name list shall be set forth after consultation between the representatives designated by the Central People's Government and various quarters concerned and shall be submitted to the Central People's Government for appointment.

(16) Funds needed by the military and administrative committee, the military area headquarters and the People's Liberation Army entering Tibet, shall be provided by the Central People's Government. The local Government of Tibet should assist the People's Liberation Army in the purchase and transport of food, fodder and other daily necessities.

(17) This agreement shall come into force immediately after the signatures and seals are affixed to it.

Officer-in-Charge, Indian Mission, Lhasa, Dr. S. Sinha.

THE NORTH-EASTERN FRONTIER

The position on the northern frontier has been considered as if the Indian frontier were contiguous with that of Tibet. This is not so. For on this frontier also lie the independent Kingdom of Nepal, the Sikkim State and Bhutan. From Gilgit, now the northern post of the Indian Government to Assam, with the exception of the small wedge between Kashmir and Nepal, where the Indian district of Kumaon is thrust right up to the confines of Tibet, for a distance of nearly fifteen hundred miles there is a narrow strip of territory between India and the true frontier.

The first of these frontier States is Kashmir which is almost the only important State which has acceded to India with frontier responsibilities. But these responsibilities have now virtually passed to the Government of India because of the recent invasion of Kashmir by forces from the west. As has already been noted one of the most important trade routes with Tibet passes through Kashmir—that through Ladakh.

Then comes the long narrow strip of land called Nepal. This Gurkha Kingdom stands in a special relation with the Indian Government. It is the main Indian outpost against Tibet or against foreign invasion through Tibet.

Beyond Nepal are Sikkim and Bhutan. whose rulers are Mongolian by extraction and Buddhist by religion. In view of Chinese aggressions in Tibet, the Government of India in 1910 strengthened their relations with Bhutan by increasing their subsidy from fifty thousand to a lakh of rupees a year, and by taking a guarantee in return that Bhutan would be guided by them in its foreign relations. Afterwards China was officially notified that the rights and interests of Sikkim and Bhutan would be protected.

NEPAL

The small hilly independent Kingdom of Nepal is a narrow tract of country extending for about 520 miles along the southern slope of the central axis of the Himalayas. It has an area of about 54,000, square miles, with a population of about 6,282,000, chiefly Hindu. The greater part of the country is mountainous, the lower slopes alone being cultivated. Above these is a rugged broken wall of rock leading up to the chain of snow-clad peaks which culminate in Mount Everest (29,002 feet) and others of slightly less altitude.

Rice, wheat and maize form the chief crops in the low-lands and in some parts of the hills too. Mineral wealth is supposed to exist but has not as yet been either prospected or developed.

The chief articles of export are cattle, hides and skins, opium and other drugs, gums, resins and dyes, jute, wheat, pulse, rice and other grains, butter, oil seeds, spices, tobacco, timber and salt-petre. The principal imports are cattle, sheep, goats, salt, sugar, drugs, petroleum, iron and copper ware, cotton, silk, textile goods.

New industries like jute, sugar, glass are being set up.

There is a 15-year plan of development.

Nepal has railway links with India: Amlekganj to Raxaul in Bihar, from Jayanagar to Bijulpura. There are about 250 miles of motorable roads. There are telephone connections between Khatmandu and stations in Bihar.

Trade is mostly financed by the Nepal Bank Ltd.

The revenue of the country is about two crores of rupees per annum.

The standing army is estimated at 45,000.

The State is of considerable archæological interest and many of the sites connected with scenes of Buddha's life have been identified in it by inscriptions on pillars.

The administrative structure of Nepal was reorganized in accordance with a proclamation made by king Tribhuvan (Maharaja Dhiraj Tribhuvan Bir Bikram Jang Bahadur Shah Bahadur Shamsher Jang) on February 18, 1951. The proclamation was made from the throne at Narainahiti Palace in Khatmandu.

There is now a Cabinet of ten Ministers who will be jointly responsible to the King and the Prime Minister will keep him informed from time to time of the progress of work in general administration. This is only an interim arrangement. For drawing up a permanent constitution a constituent assembly based on adult suffrage would be set up by 1952 at the latest.

The Ministry is as follows:

Prime Minister, Foreign and Defence, Maharaja Mohan Shumshere Jung Bahadur Rana.

Forest, General Singha.

Public Health, Lt.-Col. Yognya Bahadur Basuait.

Local Self-Government, Churaraj Shumshere.

Home, Bishweshwar Prasad Koirala.

Finance, Subarna Shumshere Jung Bahadur Rana.

Industries, Ganeshman Singh.

Transport and Commerce, Bhadrakali Mishra.

Food and Agriculture, Surya Prasad Upadhyaya.

Education, Naipa Jung Rana.

The introduction of these changes marks the end of the hereditary rule of the Rana family which was in existence since 1867.

Of the ten Ministers five represent the Congress Party, and the rest the 'Rana Bloc'.

Recent Developments

There was agitation for political reforms in the State for sometime. This agitation which had its base in India was carried on chiefly by two political parties called the Nepali National Congress and the Nepali Democratic Congress. These two bodies fused under the presidentship of Mr. M. P. Koirala in April 1950 when they decided to launch a mass movement against the authorities. In May the Working Committee of this Congress meeting in Patna passed a resolution affirming "its determination to fight the tyranny of one-man rule in Nepal till a democratic form of Government is established".

It might be mentioned that when a treaty of peace and friendship was signed between India and Nepal in July 1950 the Government of India impressed on the Nepalese delegation the urgent need of associating popular elements with the administration.

The first news that some kind of agitation had begun in Nepal was brought by a group of villagers in the western hills of the State who trekked down to India early in June with reports of a military action in eleven villages on May 24. According to Nepalese Congress circles the military raided the villages "and opened indiscriminate fire". In the third week of June the mass satyagraha was formally launched when about 1,000 kisans were arrested.

Meanwhile in Khatmandu the first Parliament in Nepal's history met on September 24. A few days later Nepali Congress Workers transferred the entire Congress Organization into Nepal from India where it had worked till then. Mr. Koirala who was invested with full powers asked the people of Nepal to get ready for the coming struggle against the authorities for the purpose of establishing a democratic government, with the King as a constitutional head. Meanwhile the authorities ordered mass arrests to forestal the threatened agitation. Regular fighting between Congress rebels based on Birganj and the State forces seemed to have broken out sometime in the second week of November, the specific date usually given being November 11.

Meanwhile in the Government itself there were differences of opinion between the King and the Ranas who were in power. The King favoured a reorganization of the State machinery on democratic lines. These differences ended in a dramatic crisis when the King took refuge in the Indian Embassy in Khatmandu with the Crown Prince and the Crown Princes' eldest son on November 8. The Nepalese Government regarded the King's departure as leaving the throne vacant and put Prince Gyanendra who was next in succession to the Crown Prince's eldest son on the throne. On November 10 the King with a party of 20 which included his two wives, the Crown Prince and the Crown Prince's eldest son was flown to India in two Dakota planes. The Government of India refused to recognize Prince Gyanendra as King of Nepal.

Meanwhile in Nepal the authorities had for all practical purposes broken the back of the rebellion and had fully re-established their control over the territory. But the Government of India made strong representations on the need to reconstitute the whole basis of the Nepali administration. They also told the Nepal Government that they would continue to recognize King Tribhuvan as the lawful ruler of the State. This resulted in the arrival of a three-man Nepalese delegation in New Delhi for the purpose of securing some kind of agreement on the nature of the administrative set-up in Nepal. These negotiations which started on November 27 continued with interruptions till January 3, 1951 when an agreement was finally arrived at. A point that held up agreement for some time was the status of the King. While the Government of India pressed for the acceptance of King Tribhuvan the Government of Nepal proposed the setting up of a regency in the King's place. Then the Nepalis asked that the question might be left to the Parliament of Nepal to decide. Eventually they agreed to the King's return without any reference to Parliament. On January 8, 1951 the Prime Minister of Nepal made a formal declaration in Khatmandu about political reforms. An appeal was made to the Congress forces to lay down arms. An amnesty was promised to all who were not guilty of violent crimes and political exiles in India were also asked to return. The reforms included the association of popular representatives with the Government, joint cabinet responsibility to the King who was to appoint the Ministers on the advice of the Prime Minister the calling together of a constituent assembly based on adult franchise not later than 1952 to frame a permanent constitution for the state and the return of the King to the Capital. The King then returned to Khatmandu on February, 15 and the new Ministry was formed on February 18.

This did not end the trouble in Nepal, however. Sections of the armed forces associated with the Congress refused to stop fighting. It was reported that they held numerous towns in the central districts of Nepal adjoining Uttar Pradesh. Two new parties were reported to have been formed Nepal Terai Congress and

the Western Nepal Peoples' Congress which demanded regional autonomy for themselves while professing loyalty to the Central Government in Khatmandu. A group of insurgents under Dr. K. I. Singh in particular was very active near Bhairawa and another near Tootibari. It was also reported that there was persistent harassment of Indian citizens who owned property in Nepal in this area. Finally the Government of India decided to set on foot police and military operations in conjunction with Nepalese forces to put down lawlessness. The insurgents offered resistance as a result of which seven of the gang were killed and one wounded. At last 357 rebels along with the leader Dr. Singh were captured and several well known dacoits wanted by the U. P. Government were also taken prisoner. The Indian Prime Minister explained in Parliament that such joint action had been taken in the past and that Indian forces had strict orders not to enter Nepal territory except in case of joint action by agreement. There is also an aspect of the situation which ought not to be ignored. In the uprising that followed the King's flight into India various anti-Government leaders became local chieftains and are now disinclined to lay down arms simply because a Cabinet Government has been formed.

Far and away the most dangerous anti-Government body in Nepal today is the Gorkha Dal which seeks the restoration of the old Rana regime. The general secretary of the Dal is Bharat Shumsher Jung Bahadur Rana who happens to be a grandson of the Defence Minister in the Nepalese Government, Babar Shumshere Jung Bahadur Rana. On April 2 the secretary general along with Prof. Randhir Suba a member of the Dal was arrested on the orders of the Government when supporters of the Dal staged a demonstration of protest in the Capital.

In March the Government of Nepal made a request to the Government of India for the loan of senior officials to modernize the administration. At the time of going to press it was reported that the Government of India had selected Mr. G. M. Shrinagesh, Commissioner of Jullundur Division as adviser to the Nepalese Government. Two other Indian Officials who were due to go to Nepal were Mr. Brij Narain of the Finance Ministry and Mr. Govind Narain in the U. P. Government service. The first was to be attached to the Finance and the second to the Home Ministries of the Nepalese Government.

HISTORY

The country before the Gurkha occupation was split up into several small kingdoms under Newar kings. The Gurkhas under Prith Narayan Shah overran and conquered the different kingdoms of Patan, Kathmandu, and Bhatgaon, and other places during the latter half of the 18th century and since then have been rulers of the whole of Nepal. In 1846 the head of the Rana family, Maharaja Jung Bahadur Rana, obtained from the sovereign the perpetual right to the office of Prime Minister of Nepal, a right which is still enjoyed by the descendants of the Rana family. This right was conceded in a signed document called *Panjpatra*. In 1850 Jung Bahadur paid a visit to England and was thus the first Hindu Chief to leave India and to become acquainted with western conditions and outlook.

The Government of the country was generally in the hands of the Prime Minister of the day. Since the time of Jung Bahadur this system of Government was clearly laid down and defined. The sovereign or Maharajadhiraja, as he is called, was but a dignified figure-head, whose position could best be likened to that of the Emperor of Japan during the Shogunate. The real ruler of the country was the Prime Minister who, while ruling the country, coupled with his official rank the title of Maharaja. Next to him came the Commander-in-Chief who ordinarily succeeded to the office of Prime Minister.

The relations of Nepal with the Government of India are based on the treaty of 1816, which brought to an end the Nepal War, and by subsequent agreements. By virtue of the same treaty either Government maintained a representative at the Court of the other while Nepal's treaty relations with Tibet allow her to station a representative at Lhasa. Ever since the conclusion of the treaty of 1816, the friendly relations with the British and Indian Governments have been steadily maintained. During the First World War Nepal gave valuable assistance to the Allies in recognition of which she received an unconditional annual present of rupees ten lakhs to be paid in perpetuity from Indian revenues. To strengthen further the bonds of friendship that has subsisted so long between the two countries, a new treaty of friendship was concluded between the Government of Nepal and Great Britain on the 21st December 1923.

When the Second World War broke out, Nepal again came forward with an offer of help and in the early part of 1940 sent 8 Battalions of her regular army to the sub-continent for the defence of its frontiers against foreign invasion. Three Battalions of these took an active part in checking the inroads of the Japanese and driving them back deep into Burma while the two Auxiliary Pioneer Battalions which were sent later played no less important a part in the construction of the Ledo road. In recognition of this help the annual grant referred to above was enhanced to twenty lakhs of rupees and payment of the capitalised value of fifty per cent of it was also made.

With the transfer of power which took place in the sub-continent on the 15th August 1947, it was decided to exchange representatives at the highest level between the Governments of India and Nepal.

INDIAN EMBASSY IN NEPAL

Ambassador for India, H. E. Shri C. P. N. Singh.

First Secretary, Dr. S. Gupta.

Superintendent & Treasury Officer, Mr. S. J. Wilfred.

NEPALESE EMBASSY IN INDIA

Nepalese Ambassador in India, H. E. Maj.-Gen. Vijaya Samsher Jung Bahadur Rana.

Counsellor, Lt.-Col. G. S. Thapa.

First Secretary, Mr. J. N. Shingha.

Military Attache, Major S. B. Basnyat.

SIKKIM

Sikkim (area 2,818 sq. miles) is an independent Himalayan State under the protectorate, in respect of foreign relations, defence, etc., of the Government of India. The population of about 1,25,000 is mixed, consisting of people partly of Tibetan origin, partly Lepcha tribesmen and partly of Nepalese immigrants. The ruling family is connected with leading Tibetan families and their origin and culture is also essentially Tibetan. It was created originally by the East India Company, partly to check the eastward expansion of Nepal, but mainly as a buffer between India and Tibet.

By the Treaty of 1861 between the Maharaja of Sikkim and the British Government, the latter acquired the right to ask for the delivery of offenders and also of following up fugitive criminals into Sikkim. It also provided for the freedom for British subjects to enter Tibet and to participate in trade in Sikkim. By the Anglo-Chinese Convention of 1890, the Tibeto-Sikkim boundary was fixed and the Chinese Government recognised Sikkim as a British protectorate.

As, till 1947, the British Government had affirmed direct and exclusive control over both the internal administration and foreign relations of that State, Sikkim was treated for all practical purposes as an Indian State. With the lapse of paramountcy in 1947, negotiations were started for a standstill agreement, which was signed early in 1948. In the middle of 1949, the Government of India lent the services of an officer to take charge of the administration of the State in response to a request from the Maharaja, when Sikkim was threatened with disorder. In December 1950, a Treaty was signed between the Government of India and Sikkim, of which the salient feature is that Sikkim should continue to be a protectorate of India, but should enjoy autonomy in regard to its internal affairs.

India has the right to station her troops anywhere in Sikkim. The Government of India agreed to pay Sikkim three lakhs of rupees every year starting with 1950. It may be mentioned here that there is already a small number of Indian troops in Sikkim.

An item of some interest was the resignation of three members of the Dewan's Advisory Council on November 19, 1950. They explained that they resigned on the ground that the Dewan denied the Council opportunity to discuss important administrative questions. There was one member of the Council the representative of the Sikkim Praja Sammelan who did not attend any meeting of the Council as he contended that the Maharaja must go and Sikkim should be converted into a Chief Commissioner's State. It is surmised that the Dewan would now have an elected Council from among panchayats which were being formed. An elected Assembly of 15 to 20 members might also be set up to form a State Parliament.

Political Officer, H. Dayal.

Dewan, J. S. Lall.

BHUTAN

Bhutan (area 18,000 sq. miles) is an autonomous Himalayan State, under the protectorate, in respect of foreign relations, of the Government of India, possessing a fertile soil and temperate climate. The population, computed to number about 300,000, are sturdy folk of Tibetan affinities; in recent times there has been a considerable Nepalese immigration in the foot-hill region. The capital is Bumthang.

The chief products are rice, Indian corn, millet, lac, wax, cloth, musk, elephants, ponies, chowries. Extensive and valuable forests exist. Guns and swords of quality steel are manufactured.

Though politically independent of Tibet Bhutan is susceptible to Tibetan influence; for the Bhutanese share the religion and culture of Tibet, and look to the Dalai Lama as their spiritual head. In former times, China exchanged presents with Bhutan, but did not establish effective suzerainty.

For some 250 miles Bhutan dominates a tract of land, singularly rich and fertile, situated partly in Bengal and partly in Assam, known as the 'Eighteen Duars' ("Duar" being a "door" or "pass"). This area and what is now the State of Cooch Behar formed the traditional happy hunting-ground of Bhutanese freebooters. Indeed it was the forcible abduction of the Cooch Behar Raja and his brother that led indirectly to the first intercourse between 'John Company' and Bhutan. This Bhutanese aggression was followed by a small successful expedition under a Company Officer. This led the then Tashi Lama (who was also Regent of Tibet) to address a friendly letter to Warren Hastings, interceding on behalf of the erring Bhutanese. Warren Hastings immediately responded by deputing Bogle's 'Good-will Mission'. Bogle travelled *via* Bhutan, and *en route* established cordial relations there (1774). These continued till 1792. In that year Nepal invaded Tibet. The Chinese suspected that the Bengal authorities had engineered this invasion, and by their influence induced the Bhutanese to shut the door.

The suspicion and hostility thus engendered was accentuated, when the Company, extending its influence to Assam, on the expulsion of the Burmese (1825), became heir to the uneasy relations existing between the Assamese and Bhutan. Between 1837 and 1864, thirty cases of plundering occurred, and at least 25 Indians were known to have been carried off into slavery.

The upheaval of 1857 served to postpone a settlement. An envoy (Mr. A. Eden) sent in 1863, charged with proposals of a conciliatory character, but instructed to demand the return of all captives and plundered property and security for the future peace of the frontier, was insulted in open Darbar and put under duress. The Bhutan War of 1864 led to the conclusion of the Treaty of Sinchula in January, 1866. Bhutan ceded in perpetuity the whole of the 18 Duars and in return received a subsidy of Rs. 50,000 a year.

From that date relations with Bhutan were excellent, and the bonds between Bhutan and India grew closer, until, in 1910, in return for an increase in the subsidy of Rs. 50,000 paid under the Sinchula Treaty to Rs. 1,00,000, that treaty was amended to include a provision that Bhutan's foreign relations should be controlled by the British (now Indian) Government at the same time undertaking to exercise no interference in the internal administration of Bhutan. Under another agreement the Bhutan Government undertook to remove all liquor shops from within a 10-mile zone of the Indian District borders in return for an annual compensation of Rs. 1,00,000.

In 1907 the leading chief of Bhutan, Tongsa Penlop Ugen Wangchuk was elected by the unanimous votes of Bhutan Chiefs and a number of monks as hereditary Maharaja of Bhutan. He was succeeded in 1926 by his eldest son now his Highness Maharaja Sir Jigme Wangchuk, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E.

On the transfer of power in India in August 1947, the Bhutan Government entered into a stand-still arrangement with the Government of India, pending the conclusion of negotiations.

Bhutan and India entered into a new treaty of friendship on 8th August 1949. Under the treaty, the Government of Bhutan continues to be guided by the Government of India in regard to its external relations. As a measure of goodwill, the Government of India have agreed to cede the territory known as Dewangiri to Bhutan and have raised their annual subsidy to Bhutan to Rs. 5 lakhs.

McMahon Line

There now remain the Assam border tribes—the Monbas, Lamai (Mijis), Nisu (Dafias), Abors and others—living between the administered border of Assam and the external frontier of India, in the region defined by agreement with Tibet in 1914 by Sir Henry McMahon and known as the McMahon line. Excepting the Abors, none of these tribe has, given serious trouble.

In 1911 the murder of two Englishmen by the Minyong Abors made necessary an expedition to the Dihang valley of the Abor country on a force of 2,500 and about 400 military police was employed for six months in subduing the tribe. After two or three small actions the murderers were given up. At the same time friendly missions were sent to the Mishmi and Nisu countries. The border region is some of the most difficult country in the world and the maintenance of close contact with the tribes has always been far from easy.

In the hills between Assam and Burma various Naga tribes predominate from Manipur northwards, and tribes of the Chin-Lushei stock from Manipur southwards. Administration has not yet been extended to all the Naga tribes and cases of head-hunting still occur in the more remote areas.

All these tribal areas are now an integral part of Assam with some sort of local autonomy for the tribes. There are provisions in the new constitution which make the welfare of the tribes a special responsibility of the Government. There is, for instance, an obligation on the State Government to set up Tribal Advisory Councils.

In 1947, the Government of India approved a Five Year Development Plan for the tribal areas of the north-east frontier, a plan which contemplates the building of roads, schools and hospitals. Work on the plan commenced in the winter of 1947. Progress has been made in implementing schemes in relation to education, agriculture, medical relief, etc.

METEOROLOGY

THE all-important fact in the meteorology of the sub-continent is the alternation of the seasons known as the summer and winter monsoons. During the winter monsoon the winds are of continental origin and hence, fine weather, clear skies, low humidity and little air movement are the characteristic features of this season. The summer rains cease in North-West India and Western Pakistan by about the middle of September after which cool westerly and northerly winds set in over that area and the weather becomes fresh and pleasant. These fine weather conditions extend slowly eastward and southward so that by the end of October, they embrace all parts of the sub-continent except the southern half of the Peninsula, and by the end of the year have extended to the whole land and sea area, the rains withdrawing to the Equatorial Belt. Thus the characteristics of the cold weather from October to March over the sub-continent are :— westerly winds of the temperate zone over the extreme north ; to the south of these the north-east winds of the winter monsoon or, perhaps more properly, the north-east Trades and a gradually extending area of fine weather which, as the season progresses, finally embraces the whole land and sea area.

Two exceptions to these fine weather conditions exist during this period, *viz.*, the Madras State and North-West India and Western Pakistan. In the former region the north-east winds which set in over the Bay of Bengal in October coalesce with the damp winds of the retreating summer monsoon, which current curves round over the Bay of Bengal, and blowing directly on to the Madras coast gives to that region the wettest and most disturbed weather of the whole year, for while the total rainfall for the four months June to September, *i.e.*, the summer monsoon, at the Madras Observatory amounts to 14.72 inches the total rainfall for the three months October to December amounts to 31.45 inches. The other region in which the weather is unsettled, during this period of generally settled conditions, is the north-west. This region from December onwards is traversed by a succession of shallow storms from the westward. In normal years in the north periods of fine weather alternate with periods of disturbed weather (occurring during the passage of these storms) and light to moderate and occasionally even heavy rain or snow occurs.

These two periods of subsidiary "rains" are of the greatest economic importance. The fall in Madras is, as shown above, of considerable actual amount, while that of the north-west though small in absolute amount is of the greatest consequence as on it largely depend the grain and wheat crops of the north.

THE SOUTH-WEST MONSOON

It is now necessary to trace the changes which occur and lead up to the establishment of the south-west monsoon. The sun at this time is progressing slowly northward towards the northern Tropic. The temperature increases rapidly and barometric pressure diminishes, owing to the air rising and being transferred to neighbouring cooler regions—more especially the sea areas. Thus we have the southern Trade circulation extending northward and the local land and sea circulation extending southward until about the beginning of June the light unsteady interfering circulation over the Arabian Sea finally breaks up, the immense circulation of the south-east Trades, with its cool, moisture laden winds rushes forward, becomes linked on to the local circulation proceeding between the land area and the adjacent seas and the sub-continent is invaded by oceanic conditions—the south-west monsoon proper. This is the most important season of the year as upon it depends the prosperity of at least five-sixths of the people.

When this current is fully established a continuous air movement extends over the Indian Ocean, the seas and the land area from Lat. 30° S. to Lat. 30° N. the southern half being the south-east Trades and the northern half the south-west monsoon. The most important fact about it is that it is a continuous horizontal air movement passing over an extensive oceanic area where steady evaporation is constantly in progress so that where the current enters the seas and flows over the land it is highly charged with aqueous vapour.

The current enters the Indian seas by the end of May and in the course of the succeeding two or three weeks spreads over the Arabian Sea and Bay of Bengal. It advances over the sub-continent from these two seas. The Arabian Sea current blows on to the west coast and sweeping over the Western Ghats prevails more or less exclusively over the Peninsula, Central India, Rajasthan and North Bombay. The Bay of Bengal current blows directly up the Bay. One portion is directed towards Eastern Pakistan and Assam while another portion after meeting the Himalayas gets deflected and blows as a south-easterly and easterly current right up the Ganga plain.

DISTRIBUTION

The south-west monsoon continues for three and a half to four months, *viz.*, from the beginning of June to the middle or end of September. During its prevalence more or less general though far from continuous rain falls throughout the sub-continent, the principal features of the rainfall distribution being as follows. The greater portion of the Arabian Sea current, the total volume of which is probably three times as great as that of the Bengal current, blows directly on to the west coast districts. Here it meets an almost continuous hill range, is forced into ascent and gives heavy rain alike to the coast districts and to the hilly range, the total averaging about 100 inches, most of which falls in four months. The current after parting with most of its moisture advances across the Peninsula giving occasional uncertain rain to the Deccan and passes out into the Bay where it coalesces with the local current. The northern portion of the current blowing across the Gujarat, Kathiawar and Sind coasts gives a certain amount of rain to the coast districts and frequent showers to the Aravalli Hill range but very little to Western Rajasthan.

The part of the monsoon current over the southern half of the Bay of Bengal which advances sufficiently far northward to blow over Bengal and Assam gives very heavy rain to the low-lying districts of Eastern Pakistan and immediately thereafter coming under the influence of the Assam Hills is forced upwards and gives excessive rain (perhaps the heaviest in the world) to the southern face of these hills. The remaining portion of the Bay current advances from the southward over Bengal, is then directed westward by the barrier of the Himalayas and gives general rain over the Ganga plain and fairly frequent rain over the lower ranges of the Himalayas from Sikkim to Kashmir.

To the south of this easterly wind of the Bay current and to the north of the westerly wind of the Arabian Sea current there exists a debatable area running roughly from Hissar in East Punjab through Agra, Allahabad and part of Chota Nagpur to Orissa, where one or the other current of the monsoon prevails. In this area the rainfall is conditioned by the storms from the Bay of Bengal which exhibit a marked tendency to advance along this track and to give it heavy falls of occasional rain. The monsoon rains are carried into North-West India and Western Pakistan by storms which form at the head of the Bay of Bengal and move in a north-westerly direction right across the country.

The total rainfall of the monsoon period (June to September) is 100 inches over part of the west coast; the amount diminishes eastward, is below 20 inches over a large part of the centre and east of the Peninsula and is only 5 inches in South Madras; it is over 100 in the North Assam Valley and diminishes steadily westward and is only 5 inches in the Indus Valley.

Cyclonic storms are an almost invariable feature of the monsoon period. In the Arabian Sea they ordinarily form at the commencement and end of the season, *viz.*, May and November, but in the Bay they form a constantly recurring feature of the monsoon season.

METEOROLOGICAL DEPARTMENT

The Meteorological Department has its headquarters in Delhi. Its functions comprise a service side and a scientific side.

(1) (A) The various interests to which weather service is rendered by the Department may be summarised as follows :—

(*a*) Aviation, Civil and Military.
(*b*) Shipping (Navy and Mercantile), Ports and Administrative authorities.
(*c*) Agriculture.
(*d*) Irrigation, Public Works (including Railways), Engineering, Industries and Forestry.
(*e*) Medicine and Public Health.
(*f*) The general public, including Commercial Bodies.

(B) The various duties of the Department may be summarised as follows :—

(*a*) Issue of short-range weather reports and forecasts, including warnings of storms, floods, frost, etc. to all the interests mentioned under (A) above.
(*b*) Issue of medium-range forecasts covering a period of 3 to 10 days.
(*c*) Issue of long-range (seasonal) forecasts of rainfall.
(*d*) The custody of the public memory for weather, *i.e.*, the preparation of daily, weekly, monthly and annual summaries of the various met. elements. This includes vast statistics of rainfall, prepared with the co-operation of State Governments.
(*e*) Compilation and publication of climatological information in the form of Tables, Handbooks and Atlases.
(*f*) Organisation and issue of time signals (*i*) for the public throughout the country, over the land-line telegraph system, and (*ii*) for shipping, through naval and coastal radio stations.
(*g*) Other miscellaneous duties, like computation of times of rise and set of sun and moon for various authorities and public bodies.

(2) The scientific functions of the Department cover the following subjects :—

(*a*) Meteorology in all its branches, including agricultural meteorology and meteorology of public health.
(*b*) Allied subjects like radiation, atmospherics, etc.
(*c*) Geophysics, and in particular terrestrial magnetism, earth currents and atmospheric electricity.
(*d*) Seismology.
(*e*) Solar Physics and Astrophysics, and in particular the relationships between solar and terrestrial phenomena.

Normal Monthly and Annual Maximum Temperature in Shade at Selected Stations in India.

Stations	Elevation in feet	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
HILL STATIONS		° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.
Darjeeling	7,432	47.0	47.8	55.4	61.2	62.9	64.9	65.7	65.6	64.6	61.7	55.6	50.5	58.6
Shillong	4,921	60.1	62.5	70.4	74.1	74.0	74.5	75.3	75.1	74.3	71.1	66.0	61.6	69.9
Simla	7,224	47.5	48.8	57.0	65.9	73.2	75.1	70.9	68.4	68.4	64.3	58.3	50·6	62.4
COAST STATIONS														
Bombay	35	83.2	83.1	86.2	89.1	91.1	88.5	85.5	85.0	85.5	88.8	89.4	86.6	86.8
Madras	51	85.3	88.3	91.4	95.5	101.3	99.6	96.3	94.8	93.9	90.1	85.4	84.1	92.2
STATIONS ON THE PLAINS														
Allahabad	322	74.8	79.2	91.7	102.6	107.1	102.7	92.1	89.4	91.5	90.4	83·4	75.7	90.1
Calcutta	21	79.6	83.7	92.5	96.8	95.6	92.4	89.5	89.0	89.9	89.2	84·2	79·4	88.5
Kanpur	413	71.9	77.0	89.4	99.4	106.2	102.7	92.4	89.7	90.9	91.2	82.8	74.0	89.0
Cuttack	87	83.1	88.2	96.6	101.2	101.4	95.5	89.5	89.0	90.0	89.7	85.0	81.2	90.9
New Delhi	710	70.5	74.7	85.0	96.6	104.8	102.4	95.3	93.0	93.5	92.5	83.2	73.7	88.8
Lucknow	371	73.9	78.6	90.8	101.4	105.4	100.2	92.4	90.5	91.9	91.4	83.9	75.9	89.7
Patna	173	73.0	77.8	89.8	98.9	100.3	96.2	90.7	89.1	89.7	88.6	82.1	74.6	87.6
PLATEAU STATIONS														
Dehra Dun	2,239	66.1	69.3	79·4	90.0	96.0	93.7	86.5	84.5	84.8	82.9	75.4	68.7	81.4
Nagpur	1,010	83.7	88.2	96.7	104.2	108.7	99.5	88.3	87.3	89.8	90.6	85.5	81.7	92.0

Normal Monthly and Annual Minimum Temperature in Shade at Selected Stations in India.

Stations	Elevation in feet	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
HILL STATIONS	For elevation, see table of maximum temperature normals	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.	° F.
Darjeeling		35.4	36.6	43.0	48.8	52.4	56.5	58.0	57.7	56.0	50.2	43.1	36.6	47·9
Shillong		38.8	42.4	50.8	57.0	59.1	63.0	64.6	64·0	61.6	54.8	46.2	40.0	53.5
Simla		35.4	36.1	43.6	50.6	57.7	60.1	59.2	59.2	56.3	51.4	44.2	39.3	49.4
COAST STATIONS														
Bombay		66.7	67.4	71.9	76.1	79.6	78.6	76.7	76.1	75.7	75.6	72.5	68.8	73.8
Madras		67.1	68.4	72.4	78.1	81.7	81.1	79.3	78.0	77.2	75.0	71.9	68.9	74.9
STATIONS ON THE PLAINS														
Allahabad		47.1	50.9	61.0	71.4	79.9	82.9	79.8	78.5	76.6	67.1	54.3	47.1	66.4
Calcutta		54.6	59.4	68.8	75.5	77.5	78.6	78.6	78.3	78.0	73.8	63.7	55.0	70.2
Kanpur		45.7	51.0	60.1	70.6	80.4	83.0	79.9	78.7	76.2	66.0	53.9	46.5	66.0
Cuttack		59.8	64.8	71.8	77.5	79.9	79.6	78.3	78.1	77.8	74.4	65.8	58.7	72.2
New Delhi		43.3	49.2	57.1	67.7	78.8	82.5	80.1	78.4	75.5	64.3	51.8	45.0	64.5
Lucknow		47.1	51.4	60.6	70.8	78.3	81.7	79.5	78.6	76.5	66.5	54.1	47.3	66.0
Patna		51.1	54.8	64.3	73.5	78.1	79.9	79.9	79.7	78.9	72.8	61.0	52.3	68.9
PLATEAU STATIONS														
Dehra Dun		44.0	46.6	54.1	62.5	70.1	74.1	73.8	72.9	69.5	60.3	51.1	45.1	60.3
Nagpur		56.0	59.9	66.7	74.5	80.9	79.6	75.5	75.0	74.2	66.5	59.1	53.8	68.5

Normal Monthly and Annual Rainfall at Selected Stations in India.

Stations	Elevation in feet	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Year
HILL STATIONS	For elevation, see table of maximum temperature normals	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.
Darjeeling		0.53	1.19	1.88	4.14	9.63	24.18	32.92	26.56	18.90	5.41	0.81	0.27	126.42
Shillong		0.52	1.06	1.97	5.10	11.29	18.16	13.65	12.49	11.79	6.72	1.61	0.28	84.64
Simla		2.61	2.92	2.36	1.81	2.53	6·04	16.30	16.85	6.68	1.18	0.52	1.24	61.04
COAST STATIONS														
Bombay		0.14	0.08	0.05	0.03	0.65	19.06	24.27	13.89	10.39	2.54	0.53	0.08	71.21
Madras		1.41	0.41	0.29	0.61	1.03	1.86	3.60	4.58	4.68	12.04	13.96	5.45	49.92
STATIONS ON THE PLAINS														
Allahabad		0.85	0.63	0.56	0.17	0.63	5.04	12.56	10.03	8.36	2.34	0.31	0.34	41.82
Calcutta		0.37	1.17	1.36	1.75	5.49	11.69	12.81	12.92	9.95	4.48	0.81	0.18	62.98
Kanpur		0.56	0.66	0.29	0.22	0.32	3.19	10.75	11.20	6.79	1.30	0.35	0.28	35.91
Cuttack		0.32	0·78	1.04	1.07	3.57	9.95	12.89	13.40	9.76	5.34	1.62	0.23	59.97
New Delhi		0.99	0.83	0.51	0.33	0.52	3.03	7.03	7.23	4.84	0.40	0.10	0.43	26.24
Lucknow		0.76	0.72	0.34	0.25	0.77	4.46	12.00	11.50	7.40	1.28	0.22	0.32	40.02
Patna		0.59	0.74	0.42	0.27	1.40	7.14	11.58	13.09	8·60	2.30	0.34	0.22	46.69
PLATEAU STATIONS														
Dehra Dun		2.32	2.47	1.26	0.65	1.45	8.55	26.30	28·79	10.62	1.26	0.35	1.02	85.04
Nagpur		0.37	0.65	0.60	0.60	0.76	8.82	14.60	11.42	8.01	2.17	0.77	0.47	49.24

THE FOLLOWING TABLE CONTAINS INFORMATION ABOUT RAINFALL DURING THE PERIOD JUNE TO SEPTEMBER 1950.

SUB-DIVISION.	RAINFALL. Period, June to September 1950.			
	Actual.	Normal.	Departure from Normal.	Percentage Departure from Normal.
1	2	3	4	5
1. Bay Islands	61·6	70·9	— 9·3	— 13
2. Assam (including Manipur and Tripura)	61·5	61·7	— 0·2	— 3
3. West Bengal	59·9	55·9	+ 4·0	+ 7
3(*a*). Sub-Himalayan West Bengal	82·4	88·6	+ 3·8	+ 4
3(*b*). Gangetic West Bengal	47·4	43·0	+ 4·4	+ 10
4. Orissa	43·1	43·4	— 0·3	— 1
5. Chota Nagpur	49·1	43·0	+ 6·1	+ 14
6. Bihar	41·9	41·9	0	0
7. Uttar Pradesh, East	33·1	37·6	— 4·5	— 12
8. Do. do. West	37·2	35·3	+ 1·9	+ 5
9. Punjab (I) (including PEPSU and Delhi)	26·6	20·5	+ 6·1	+ 30
10. Rajasthan, West	13·4	9·5	+ 3·9	+ 41
11. Do. East (including Ajmer)	31·8	24·6	+ 7·2	+ 29
12. Madhya Bharat (including Bhopal)	32·0	38·1	— 5·9	— 15
13. Vindya Pradesh	39·2	41·7	— 2·5	— 6
14. Madhya Pradesh, East	36·9	47·5	— 10·6	— 22
15. Do. do. West	34·7	39·2	— 4·5	— 11
16. Gujarat	40·3	29·8	+ 10·5	+ 35
17. Saurashtra and Kutch	22·1	17·5	+ 4·6	+ 26
18. Konkan	103·4	93·7	+ 9·7	+ 10
19. Deccan (Desh)	22·5	20·6	+ 1·9	+ 9
20. Hyderabad, North	25·1	28·1	— 3·0	— 11
21. Do. South	27·0	23·3	+ 3·7	+ 16
22. Coastal Andhradesa	18·8	19·8	— 1·0	— 5
23. Rayalaseema	14·6	15·3	— 0·7	— 5
24. Tamilnad	11·0	11·4	— 0·4	— 4
25. Malabar and South Kanara	117·1	100·3	+ 16·8	+ 17
26. Mysore	22·8	22·9	— 0·1	0
27. Travancore-Cochin	63·6	51·8	+ 11·8	+ 23
Mean of India excluding Kashmir, and Bay Islands	33·5	32·9	+ 0·6	+ 2

Monsoon Rainfall Summary : The monsoon arrived earlier than usual along the West Coast, but unusually delayed in its effective extension into the interior of the country during June. The Bay of Bengal branch after advancing into north-east India remained active till the end of the month. Early in July there was a general strengthening of the monsoon, being vigorous over Saurashtra and Kutch. After a spell of dry weather from the end of July to the 3rd week of August and a break in August, the monsoon revived in full strength and continued till the end of the season. Vigorous monsoon conditions prevailed in west Madhya Pradesh in and near north Gujarat and in the Punjab (I) in September. The monsoon began to withdraw from north-west India after September 20 and had completely withdrawn by October 2. The rainfall as a whole was in slight excess in Chota Nagpur, the Punjab (I), Rajasthan, Gujarat, Saurashtra and Kutch, south Hyderabad, Malabar, South Kanara and Travancore-Cochin, and in slight deficit in the Bay Islands, east Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Bharat, Madhya Pradesh and north Hyderabad, being normal over the rest of the country. Taking the average over the plains of India, the rainfall was 2 per cent. in excess.

EARTHQUAKES

THE sub-continent is divided geologically and therefore physiographically into three distinct and well-defined units. The northernmost unit consisting of sedimentary and crystalline rocks comprises the great mountain ranges of the Himalayas that were upraised, in comparatively recent times, geologically speaking, and are believed to be still undergoing elevation. They constitute the sub-continent's most unstable region and are therefore the seat of the most violent earthquakes. The north-south running mountains of Burma are components of the same mountain system, the Andaman and Nicobar Islands being their southern continuation, and Burma likewise pays the same penalty for their instability.

The southward push of these mountains caused a sinking of the Himalayan foreland—the region of the Indo-Gangetic basin, now filled with alluvium. This constitutes the second unit, and on account of its proximity to the restless mountains in the north, it shares, though in a lesser degree, the effects of the Himalayan earthquakes. But it also makes its own independent contribution of such catastrophies, as we know from the Bihar earthquake of January 1934.

The triangular portion of the Peninsula proper senstitutes a stable landmass—a Horst—as the geologists call it—and is the third and most stable region in the sub-continent, being comparatively free from any severe earthquakes. Only one earthquake which did any considerable damage has been recorded from this region (April 1843). From the apex of the Peninsula to Madras, however, runs a region of minor shocks, probably connected with some dislocation in the earth's crust, though there is no direct evidence of this.

These three units, then, constitute regions of decreasing intensity of earthquakes as we travel from north to south. They are indicated on the accompanying map, which is essentially the same as the one prepared by Dr. W. D. West of the Geological Survey of India.

CAUSES

It will be unnecessary to go into the origin of the individual earthquakes, but a few remarks on the main causes of these phenomena will be illuminating. While minor earthquakes may be due to volcanic activity, the major ones are almost invariably the result of movement along dislocations in the earth's crust or "faults", as the geologists call them, and thrust planes.

A number of important faults run close to the southern edge of the Himalayas and the Himalayan foot is therefore a very unstable region. The most important of these is known as the Main Boundary Fault. A similar fault runs along the foot of the Shan Plateau in Burma while the Kyaukkyan fault runs north and south in the Northern Shan States, and has probably given rise to earthquakes.

It may, however, be pointed out that it is only such 'faults' as are still active that give rise to earthquakes. Thus the faults in the Peninsular area appear to be now inert and therefore few earthquakes occur there. However some of these faults were probably active in remote geological times. Although the immediate cause of the shocks may be movement along a fault or faults, the ultimate cause is often the rapid denudation of steep ranges, which upsets the equilibrium of the earth (Kangra, 1905) in the readjustment of which these movements occur. The same result is achieved by the slipping of large alluvial masses in deltaic areas or their uplift owing to tectonic forces (Rangoon Dec. 1927). The regions where mountain ranges take sharp bends, being highly folded, are naturally areas of pent-up strains seeking relief and are therefore zones of great danger. The violent Quetta earthquake of 1935 and the earlier ones of Mach and Sharigh (1931) were of this nature, for these places lie near sharp bends in the Suleiman, Bugti or Kirthar ranges.

ASSAM EARTHQUAKE

Turning to the year under review, 1950, we find that a severe earthquake occurred at 19 h. 39 m. 23 s. I.S.T. (14 h. 09 m. 23 s. G.M.T.) on August 15, in Assam. The seismological laboratory at Poona located the epicentre at Lat. 29° N and Long. 97° E. From the extent of landslips it caused, it is presumed that the region extended further W.S.W. towards Abor Hills.

The main shock lasted for a period ranging from 4 to 8 minutes within the severely affected area. This was followed by a large number of aftershocks, those of August 16 to August 18, of September 13 and September 30, and of October 4 being fairly strong and recorded over wide areas. It is also presumed that the main shock created some dislocations along certain minor faults away from the epicentral zone and thus caused local earthquakes of minor intensity. In certain other areas the damage was found to be more severe in abandoned river beds, which are abundant in Assam and had often become populated.

Immediately after the earthquake several tributaries of the Brahmaputra were blocked by landslips, causing widespread floods. The most seriously affected river in this respect was the Subansiri. Landslips were widespread and a large area of the hill faces was rendered bare. Great damage was caused to railways, roads, bridges and brick buildings. Considering the severity of the earthquake, however, the loss of human life was comparatively small.

It is not possible to assess the total damage with any degree of accuracy but the following figures have been most often quoted :

extent—15,200 sq. miles.

number of persons affected—4,62,000.

loss of life—1,000.

dwelling houses damaged—100,000.

tea gardens damaged—6.

total estimated loss—rupees one crore.

The earthquake was regarded as one of the five worst in history with repercussions spreading over besides north and east Assam, south-east Tibet, north Burma and south-west China.

HISTORICAL REVIEW

Very little is known of the Indian earthquakes previous to the year 892 A.D. and accounts of the earlier of the recorded earthquakes are necessarily incomplete. T. Oldham has recorded the different sources of information of the earlier Indian earthquakes in his catalogue. Among the works in which records of Indian earthquakes later than 892 A.D. occur are the *Tárikhul Khulafá* (History of the Caliphs), the *Alkámil-fi-l Tárikh* by Ibnulathír—a historical work of the Arabians, the *Mir-át-ul-'Alam*, an unpublished work in the library of the Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal, *Badáoní* (Bibliotheca Indica), Bábar's memoirs, Kháfí Khán's *Muntakhabullabáb*, etc.

Much information is also gleaned from the Journals of the Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal the *Philosophical Transactions*, etc. Accounts of the later earthquakes appear in detail in the records and memoirs of the Geological Survey of India, from which much of the information given here is drawn.

A chronological occurrence of the more important earthquakes may now be given.

The earliest earthquake authentically recorded in India took place about the close of the year 893 A.D. or early in 894 A.D., when Daibul or Daipul, an important town on the coast of the Indian Ocean was severely shaken and about 150,000 persons lost their lives. As noted by Oldham a record of this earthquake appears both in the *Tárikhul Khulafá* (History of the Caliphs) and in *Alkámil-fi-l Tárikh*.

The earthquake of July 6, 1505 affected Afghanistan and the northern part of the sub-continent. It is recorded that great fissures appeared in many parts and there were extensive landslips causing much damage and loss of life. In one day as many as 33 shocks were felt and continued for a whole month.

The State of Kashmir was shaken by an earthquake in 1552, but no details are available.

Several earthquakes of less intensity took place between the years 1618 and 1664. On the 26th of May, 1618, Bombay experienced an earthquake in which nearly two thousand lives were lost. The accompanying hurricane resulted in the destruction of several vessels. Lakhugar in Assam suffered an earthquake on February 7, 1663. Shocks were felt in certain parts of eastern Bengal for a period of 32 days during the year 1668.

The next earthquake of great intensity which affected the sub-continent occurred in May 1668, between the dates 2nd—11th. Its effect was so serious that Samáji or Samáwáni—a town of 30,000 inhabitants sank into the ground.

Following this terrible catastrophe there was a period of comparative quiescence for about 50 years. Upper India was however shaken by an earthquake on the '14 Muharam of Aurangzeb's 12th year' (*Mir-at-ul-'Alam*, an unpublished work of Bakhtiwar Khan) that is, the 4th of June 1669. This earthquake was accompanied by a big shower of meteors, which, it is reported, fell into a lake and caused its waters to overflow.

Kashmir was affected by shocks on June 22, 1669 but not much damage appears to have been done.

Delhi Earthquakes.—A severe earthquake shook Delhi on Friday, July 17, 1720, at about midday and was accompanied by considerable damage to the fortress, Fatehpur Mosque and other property, as well as loss of life. It is reported that comparatively severe shocks continued for more than a month, so much so that the population of Delhi had to sleep out of doors during this period.

A violent earthquake accompanied by a hurricane of great intensity occurred in Calcutta and the delta of the Ganges in October 1737. It is reported that 20,000 craft plying in the Ganges were cast away, the steeple of a church sank completely into the ground, and 300,000 people lost their lives. It is further reported that 60 ton barques were blown two leagues up the river.

Bengal, Burma and the Arakan coast were affected on April 2, 1762. In fact it is reported that the emergence of the Arakan coast from the sea is due to this earthquake, but that is an obvious exaggeration, though partial elevation of the coastal strip probably occurred. It is stated that oysters were found attached to rocks forty feet above ground level.

Several shocks of varying intensity occurred in different parts of the sub-continent—Calcutta, Kashmir, Ongole and the upper reaches of the Ganges between July 13, 1762 and May 22, 1803, but they were not of much importance.

A violent earthquake took place on Sept. 1, 1803, affecting Mathura, Calcutta, Garhwal, Kumaon and Delhi. At Mathura the domes of several mosques erected by Ghazi Khan sank into the ground. Several villages were swallowed up in Garhwal.

This earthquake is noted for the fact that the upper portion of the famous Qutab Minar fell as a result of it, though it is also stated that the Minar was struck by lightning.

The earthquake of June 16, 1819 was one of the worst earthquakes experienced in the sub-continent. Its effect was the severest in Kutch, the chief town of which—Bhuj—was completely ruined and 2,000 persons perished. Ahmedabad, Broach, Surat and Poona were all affected.

In the western region of Kutch the town of Sindree and the neighbouring area was submerged as a result of tidal waves. A tract 51 miles wide was raised in front of a branch of the Indus and the river had to cut a fresh channel across it. This ridge is known to the local inhabitants as Allah Band, or God's Embankment.

One very severe shock followed by minor ones occurred on October 29, 1826 and resulted in several houses falling in Khatmandu and Patan, in Nepal.

Sometime in September 1827 the fort of Kolitaran, near Lahore, was destroyed and about 1,000 persons lost their lives. It is stated that a hill falling into the river Ravi resulted in extensive floods.

There is record of at least 80 earthquakes affecting the sub-continent between June 6, 1828 and the year 1839, but of these only two are worth mentioning, namely, the one that shook the vale of Kashmir on June 6, 1828 and the other that affected Nepal and the eastern and central region in the north. In Kashmir alone over a thousand persons lost their lives, and for at least two months following the earthquake the number of shocks was as high as one to two hundred per day.

The earthquake of August 26, 1833 was felt in Khatmandu (Nepal) and north Bihar. In Khatmandu alone 100 houses were levelled to the ground and a similar fate overtook other places. There was continuous agitation for full 24 hours.

The earthquake of February 19, 1842 lasted for about three minutes in Kabul and affected Peshawar, Jallalabad, etc. It was very destructive at Peshawar and one-third of the town of Jallalabad was destroyed. Hot springs at Sonah became cold and the amount of water also diminished. The area affected was about 216,000 square miles. The epicentral area was probably near Jallalabad.

Two earthquakes which affected the Deccan in March and April 1843 may be here recorded, for the Deccan, being a stable landmass, is rarely affected by earthquakes of any intensity. Sholapur, Maktal, Singrurgarh, Bellary, Kurnool, Belgaum were all affected and much damage was done. This is the only earthquake known in the Deccan which caused considerable damage. The epicentre was near Bellary.

An earthquake occurred on January 10, 1869 in Assam (Cachar). The total area where shocks were felt extended 250,000 square miles.

A severe earthquake occurred in the Bay of Bengal on the morning of December 31, 1881. The radius of the area affected was about 800 miles, and the total area over which the shock was felt was in the neighbourhood of 2,000,000 square miles, most of it being sea. It was felt at Gaya, Hazaribagh, Agra, Ootacamund and Kozhikode (Calicut). The northernmost point affected was near Monghyr.

The earthquake of May 30, 1885 although comparatively mild, resulted in heavy loss of life and about 3,000 persons perished in Kashmir. The epicentre was a few miles west of Srinagar. The radius of felt area was 300–450 miles, the total area affected being about 110,000 square miles.

The epicentre of the earthquake of July 14, 1885 was north-west of Dacca. It was felt violently throughout East and West Bengal, but extended also into Chota Nagpur, Bihar, Sikkim, Bhutan and Assam. The area affected was approximately 230,400 square miles.

Assam Earthquakes.—One of the worst earthquakes which has affected Assam and probably one of the greatest within historic times occurred on June 12, 1897. Stone buildings in Shillong, Goalpara, Gauhati, Nowgong and Sylhet were almost entirely destroyed everywhere and Calcutta was seriously affected. Over 1,600 lives were lost and the earthquake was felt in an area of 1,730,000 square miles. The earthquake was caused by a "movement along a thrust-plane or thrust-planes, and along secondary thrust and fault-planes, which had a maximum length of about 200 miles and a maximum width of about 50 miles." This movement was due to the relief of differential strains set up in the interior of the earth.

The district of Kangra in the Punjab suffered heavily on April 4, 1905, more particularly because the shocks occurred early in the morning when people were still asleep. There was heavy loss of life—20,000 persons having perished. The area affected was 1,625,000 square miles. Kangra and Dharamsala were completely destroyed. The main shock was from north to south, followed by an equally severe one from south to north. The earthquake is ascribed to movement along one of the reverse faults of the Himalayas.

A violent shock was felt on July 8, 1918 which affected East Bengal, Assam, Burma, and the north-west as far as Lahore. It was most strongly felt in Srimangal (Assam) where many tea estates were ruined. The total area over which it was felt was 800,000 square miles. This earthquake was due to subsidence along a fault. It was accompanied by pouring out of sand, mud and water from fissures created in the ground.

Assam was shaken by a severe earthquake on July 3, 1930, after about 12 years of comparative quiescence. The total area affected was about 350,000 square miles. The town of Dhubri suffered considerable damage, but fortunately no loss of life occurred. This was probably due to the fact that many houses were built of 'flexible superstructure supporting light, often galvanised iron roofs' and at that time of the year many persons were not sleeping in their houses. The earthquake was probably due to weakness at the foot of the Assam range, movement along which zone was assisted by the rapid denudation of the mountains, which presumably upset the equilibrium.

The earthquake of January 15, 1934, the north Bihar earthquake, is still fresh in our minds. It was one of the most violent earthquakes that have affected the sub-continent. It is estimated that over 10,000 lives were lost and several crores worth of property was damaged. Sitamarhi, Madhubani, Monghyr, Patna, Jamalpur, Muzaffarpur, Darjeeling, etc., and the Nepal valley suffered heavily. The epicentre of this earthquake ran from near Motihari through Sitamarhi to Madhubani. The total area over which it was felt was 1,900,000 square miles. The earthquake is attributed to faults underlying the alluvium. It is fortunate that it occurred in the afternoon (about 2-15 p.m.), for had it occurred at night it would have been one of the worst of such disasters ever experienced by mankind.

The last but one severe earthquake to be experienced in the Republic occurred in the Hindu Kush on November 14, 1937, and was felt throughout the North-West Frontier Province, Kashmir, as well as largely over the two Punjabs, Uttar Pradesh, northern Sind and Baluchistan. Severe shocks were felt at Lahore, Rawalpindi, Peshawar, Kangra, Chitral and Drosh, and considerable damage was done. No loss of life was reported.

Although minor earthquakes have been reported from different parts of the sub-continent later than November 1937, none of these has caused damage or loss of life. Details of some of these are given below:

On May 3, 1938 two shocks were felt at intervals of about five seconds at Shillong in Assam, at 10-21 p.m. The shocks lasted for about 40 seconds. There was very little damage to property and no loss of life.

Mention must also be made of the earthquake of November 21, 1939, which was felt at Jammu, Mianwali, Dehra Ismail Khan, Peshawar, Rawalpindi, Srinagar, Dalhousie, Kabul, Gilgit, Skardu, etc. Its epicentre was in the Hindu Kush range being situated at 36° N. 75.5° E. Its focal depth was 200 kms.

The intensity of this earthquake at Srinagar and Gilgit was VII on the Mercali scale. At Srinagar three shocks were felt at intervals of 10 seconds each. Cracks developed in the walls of the Observatory and other buildings in the city. At Gilgit, which suffered three shocks at intervals of two seconds each, boulders slipped down from the surrounding mountains and dust spread all over the valley.

During 1940 earthquake shocks were felt at Gulmarg in Kashmir, at Barmer (Rajasthan) and at Bhuj and Radhanpur in western India.

At Gulmarg two shocks of moderate intensity were felt on August 3, at 14-45 (I.S.T.) and cracked walls of *kutcha* houses. Shocks of moderate intensity were also felt on August 8, and September 21, 1940, but apart from cracks in *kutcha* houses no damage was done. Barmer and Bhuj experienced a slight shock on October 31, while Bhuj had another shock on November 13, 1940.

There was no loss of life or serious damage to property during any of these earthquakes.

An earthquake of moderate intensity took place on January 21, 1941 at 18-16 hours (I.S.T.) with its epicentre to the north of Assam. The shocks lasted for about one minute but no damage was caused.

Another earthquake occurred on June 26, at 17-27 hours (I.S.T.) This earthquake whose epicentre lay in the neighbourhood of Nicobar Islands, was of very great intensity and was felt in Madras, Chittagong, Chandwadi, Colombo, etc. Extensive damage to buildings occurred in Port Blair where four persons were killed and four seriously injured. The duration of the shock was less than half a minute.

On June 30, at 23-58 hours (I.S.T.) another shock of moderate intensity was felt at Port Blair with its epicentre in the neighbourhood of North Andamans.

Three earthquakes of slight to moderate intensity were recorded during the year 1942. An earthquake of slight intensity with its epicentre in Assam was felt at 16-17

hours (I.S.T.) on February 22, in parts of old undivided Bengal and Assam. No loss of life or damage was reported. On March 22, a quake of moderate intensity was felt at 7-38 hours at Lahore and Rawalpindi in Pakistan and at Simla in India. The epicentre was in the Hindu Kush Mountains. A third earthquake of slight intensity was felt in parts of India on May 15, 1942 at 22-25 hours (I.S.T.). The epicentre lay in the Hindu Kush. There was no loss of life or damage to property.

Two shocks of slight intensity were felt at Srinagar in Kashmir & at Drosh in Chitral, on February 6, 1943, at intervals of 30 seconds. On February 9, an earthquake of slight intensity was felt in parts of Assam. Slight shocks were felt over a wide area—Rawalpindi, Muzaffarabad, D. I. Khan in Pakistan and Gauhati, Gulmarg and Srinagar in India on September 9, 1943, at 10-36 (I.S.T.). The epicentre of this earthquake was near the Hindu Kush Mountains. An earthquake of great intensity with epicentre in Assam was felt in parts of Assam and north Bengal, on October 23 at 23-54 (I.S.T.). Slight shocks were felt at D. I. Khan on November 27 at 15-15 (I.S.T.).

Although a large number of earthquakes have occurred during 1944-45, with the exception of one, they were all of comparatively small intensity. This latter had a higher intensity and was felt on December 25, 1944, at Silchar, Shillong and Calcutta, at about 9-25 p.m., (I.S.T.). At Silchar shocks were felt over a period of three minutes and several houses suffered damage. No damage was, however, reported from either Shillong or Calcutta.

Another earthquake of slight intensity was felt at Patna, at 10-25 p.m. on February 18, 1944. Though the shocks felt were fairly sharp no damage to property or loss of life occurred.

On February 29, 1944, an earthquake of great intensity, with epicentre in the Maldive Islands was felt in the Ceylon region at 22-58 (I.S.T.). An earthquake of moderate intensity with epicentre near the Andaman Islands, was recorded on September 27, 1944. During 1944 further shocks were felt in different parts of India—Kashmir, Bihar, Assam—but none of them was of much importance.

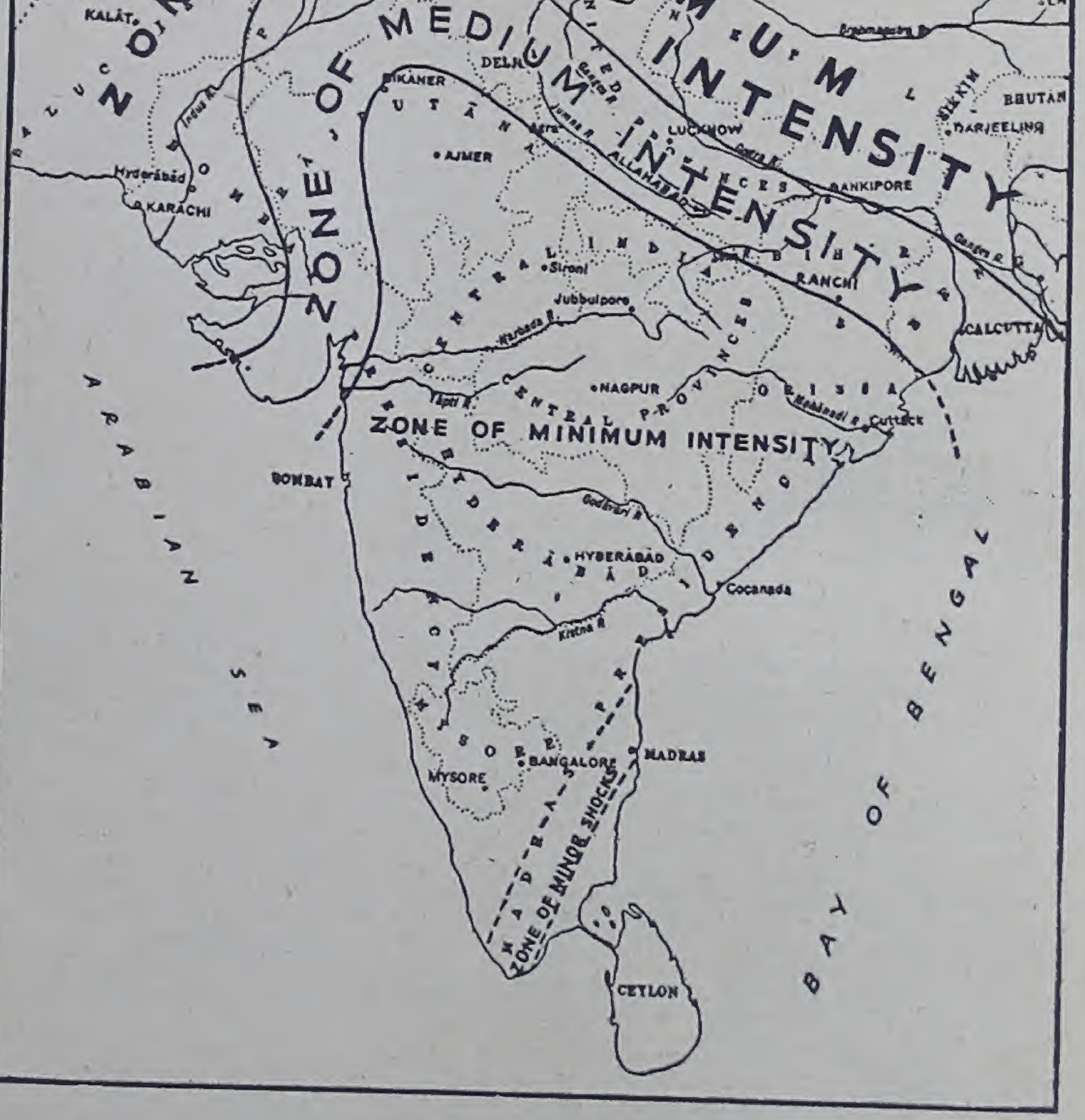
Between January 1945 and March 1945 the reported shocks were all of small intensity and occurred in Nepal and Assam.

During 1946 also numerous earthquake shocks were experienced in various parts in the Republic of India but none of these appear to have caused any serious damage or loss of life. In India shocks of varying intensity were recorded at Digboi, in Assam (March 7, 1946), at Srinagar in Kashmir (February 25, 1946), at Jabalpur in Madhya Pradesh (January 19, 1946), at Dehra Dun in Uttar Pradesh (September 4, 1946), and at Faridpur (September 12, 1946) where the hitherto calm water of the river was agitated and rose to a height of 2 feet, the phenomenon being observable for 15 seconds.

No really severe earthquakes involving serious loss of life or property occurred in the Indian Republic during 1947 though shocks of varying intensity were recorded at Calcutta and other places.

MAP SHOWING THE EARTHQUAKE ZONES OF INDIA

By M. R. SAHNI,
Geological Survey of India. (After W. D. West.)



POPULATION

MAJOR provisional figures about population obtained from the census carried out in February 1951 were placed before Parliament by the Home Minister Mr. C. Rajagopalachari on April 14, 1951.

According to these figures the total population of India (exclusive of the State of Jammu and Kashmir and the tribal areas of Assam) is 356,891,624; males 183,384,807; and females 173,506,817. The population of Jammu and Kashmir is estimated at 4·37 millions (as on March 1, 1950) and that of the tribal areas of Assam 0·56 millions. The population of India including these two figures is thus 361·82 millions. The total number of displaced persons is given as 7,479,278. The increase in population during the period 1941–1951 is 42·06 millions that is to say 13·4 per cent.

The area of the country is 1,138,814 sq. miles, of Jammu and Kashmir 82,250 sq. miles.

These figures are, of course, subject to correction in the light of detailed scrutiny of census records. It is not, however, anticipated that any material variations will be found necessary. Detailed tables of population are given below. Final and complete results will be published in 1952.

A comparative study of the population of the country with the rest of the world shows that India's population is 15·1 per cent. of the world population. India is second only to China whose population is 19·4 per cent. But while the land area in India is only 1,221,000 sq. miles that of China is more than three times as much. The total world population is estimated to be 2,386·81 millions.

Uttar Pradesh with 63 million people has the largest population. Next come Madras, Bihar, Bombay and West Bengal in that order. The Andaman and Nicobar Islands are at the bottom with a population of 30,963.

The population of the four biggest cities in India are as follows:—

Calcutta City—2,549,790
[Greater Calcutta—4,550,117]
Bombay—2,840,011
Delhi—1,743,892
Madras—1,429,985

Special attention may be drawn to some of the more outstanding features of the census records.

There are more men than women in India today. This masculine predominance is evident to a greater extent in the North than in the South.

The only exceptions are Madras, Travancore-Cochin, Orissa, Kutch and Manipur.

According to the 1951 census figures, the male population in Madras is about 28,400,000 compared with about 28,500,000 females. In Travancore-Cochin there are 1,007 women to every 1,000 men, while in Orissa, Kutch and Manipur, the female population exceeds the male respectively by 2·3, 7·7 and 3·4 per cent.

Physiologists believe that the predominance of the male population over the females is a trait peculiar to India, for mother nature has always been partial to the female.

A number of sociological reasons is adduced to account for the increased male population in India, and all of them centre on religion and superstition. For instance, sub-conscious neglect of the female child—or a conscious preference for the male—is given as one of the reasons. An average Indian family always prefers a male child to a female child.

Another theory advanced is heavy maternal mortality which is a direct consequence of child marriage or of the young age of those married.

Another interesting feature revealed by the census figures is that the percentage of increase in the total population in 1951—13·4 as against 14·3 registered in the 1941 census—is said to be a little less than the normal demographical stipulations.

The smaller percentage of the increase is attributed partly to prohibition of widow remarriage and partly to the purdah system in certain communities.

Delhi recorded the biggest increase in population, 90 per cent; Coorg is next with 35·5 per cent. Punjab is least with 0·4 per cent. though it must be remembered that this State today is less than half its original size in undivided India. The increase in West Bengal is recorded as 13·5 per cent which again on account of partition contains more people in a smaller area. The only area which registers a decrease is the Andaman and Nicobar Islands where the population has fallen from 33,768 in 1941 to 30,963 in 1951, a drop of 8·3 per cent.

The birth-rate for 1949 is 26·7 per mille, and the death-rate 16 per mille.

CENSUS OPERATIONS

A few particulars about the census itself may be useful. For the first time the census embraced the whole of India including the former Indian States, but excluding Jammu and Kashmir and the tribal areas of Assam. Jammu and Kashmir was omitted because of special conditions and the tribal areas of Assam because they had never been enumerated before.

The census began on February 9, 1951 and ended at sunrise on March 1, 1951. Persons who do not normally reside in houses such as members of wandering tribes, tramps, sadhus were enumerated wherever they were found during the night before March.

The operations were one of the biggest as well as the cheapest. About 600,000 enumerators took part and visited about 64 million houses. Except for the census superintendents and the staff engaged on tabulation everyone else was an honorary worker. These honorary workers included Government employees, employees of local bodies, teachers and boy scouts. There are about 55 tabulation offices and about 15,000 sorters and supervisors working for about a year or more until all the tables are complete. The operations which generally cost about a crore of rupees were expected to cost only about 20 lakhs, that is to say, about Rs. 43 per thousand of the population.

One vital difference between the 1951 census and all previous census is that caste and community distinctions would not figure as before except to the extent necessary for the purpose of Article 338 of the Constitution which provides safeguards to scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and Anglo-Indians, and of Article 340 which provides for the appointment of a Backward Classes Commission. The emphasis is laid on the economic aspects of the situation, such as the principal and subsidiary means of livelihood of the person, whether employer, employee or independent worker and so on. (A detailed analysis of the questionnaire is given below). All this will combine to give a true picture of the living conditions of the people.

The census this year will be important in two more respects. First it will form the basis for the delimitation of constituencies for the general elections at the end of 1951. It will also provide important data for the National Planning Commission in the preparation of their report.

QUESTIONNAIRE

We may next pass to a general analysis of the questions that were asked during the enumeration.

The census questionnaire covered the entire International list drawn up by United Nations experts excepting a single item, namely, fertility data. Even this was covered by a local question included in the all-India questionnaire in two States (Bihar and Madhya Pradesh) with a total population of 70 millions. The twelve items of the International list, it may be mentioned are, (1) Total Population (2) Sex (3) Age (4) Marital Status (5) Place of Birth (6) Citizenship or Nationality (7) Mother tongue (8) Educational characteristics (9) Fertility data (10) Economic Characteristics (11) Urban and Rural Population and (12) Households (including relationship to Household Head).

In addition to the International list of 12 topics, the questionnaire asked three questions, of which the most important related to displaced persons. By this question Government hoped to find out how many displaced persons there were in the country, when they came, which districts of Pakistan they came from, where they were now living and what they were doing to earn their livelihood.

Two main and two subsidiary questions in the census questionnaire related to "economic status" and "means of livelihood". These questions were: Are you a self-supporting person or a non-earning dependent or an earning dependent? If you are a self-supporting person, are you an employer or an employee or an independent worker or none of these? What is the occupation or source of income which forms your principal means of livelihood? Have you a secondary means of livelihood? If so, what is it?

Whether one was a self-supporting person or an earning or a non-earning dependent would depend on whether the cost of one's maintenance was wholly or partly met by one's own income.

The census questionnaire did not contain any enquiry about either income or cost separately. What it attempted was to get data on the economic status of a person. If the total number of self-supporting persons was ascertained and the number of people who lived on unearned income were deducted from it, we would get the total of the economically active population. The census sought to obtain this figure as distinct from the figure for the economically passive and semi-active population. It also sought to determine the distribution of the economically active population in the different divisions and sub-divisions of the national economy, and also the actual number of other people who were dependent on each of those divisions and sub-divisions. Vague and general conceptions like "labour" or "service" were avoided, and specific answers were asked for.

The manner of recording agricultural livelihood, was different from that of non-agricultural livelihood. Instructions were given to classify agriculturists under four heads, *viz.*, (1) persons who cultivated land owned by themselves, (2) persons who cultivated land owned by another, (3) persons who were employed as labourers by another person who cultivated land and (4) persons who received rent in cash or kind in respect of land cultivated by another person.

These are general questions which were asked all over the country. There were also questions confined to particular States. For instance questions about unemployment were asked in the following twelve States:—U.P., Bombay, Punjab, Saurashtra, PEPSU, Mysore, Hyderabad, Delhi, Bilaspur, Himachal Pradesh, Kutch, and Vindhya Pradesh. Questions about previous occupation were asked in the 2 States of Madhya Bharat and Bhopal; about area of land owned and cultivated by each household in Orissa; about cultivation of land for which rent is paid in West Bengal; about land owned and rented by indigenous persons in the 3 States of Assam, Tripura and Manipur; about infirmities (incidence of diseases) in the 4 States of Madras, Coorg, Rajasthan and Ajmer; about fertility in the 2 States of Bihar and Madhya Pradesh. And about the duration of marriage and size of family in the State of Travancore-Cochin.

NATIONAL REGISTER

Simultaneously with the population census a census of small scale industries including cottage industries also took place. Only such undertakings as do not use mechanical power and employ less than 20 persons or those which use power but employ less than 10 fell within this category. The information collected included items like the name of the proprietor, nature of the business, number of owners of each establishment and whether the work is of a perennial or seasonal character.

The literates and illiterates will be categorized as follows: Those unable to read and write, those able to read but not able to write, those who can both read and write, and lastly those who have passed examinations and hold degrees.

An item of some interest is that Sadhus and Sanyasis are to be classed under 'Religious and Charitable Service'. People without any permanent residence will fall under the category of vagrants.

There will in all be five kinds of tables, first general population tables, secondly economic tables showing among other things the people's means of livelihood and grouping them as employers, employees or independent workers, thirdly sample tables showing size of household, etc., fourthly social and cultural tables relating to language, religion, educational standards, scheduled castes and tribes, migrants, displaced persons and non-Indian nationals and fifthly tables giving summary figures for each district.

Of these only the population tables are ready and are given below.

At a later stage the Census Commission will prepare zonal population statistics based on people's food habits. There will be six zones, such as rice zone, wheat zone and so on. This will be done in order to help the Food Ministry in accurately assessing wheat, rice and other requirements of people in various areas.

All useful data collected during the census operations will be recorded in a national register. Relevant parts of this register will be kept in every tahsil or sub-division or ward as a permanent and confidential record of the inhabitants. It is also proposed to bring out a census handbook for every district which the State Governments have been requested to publish. The State Governments have also been requested to include abstracts from these in school textbooks so that students could learn more about their region than they do at present.

GROWTH OF POPULATION.

Year.	Population (in millions).	Increase (in millions).	Percentage Increase.
1951 ..	356·89	42·06	+ 13·4
1941 ..	314·83	39·31	+ 14·3
1931 ..	275·52	27·34	+ 11·0
1921 ..	248·18	0·87	— 0·3
1911 ..	249·05	13·55	+ 5·8
1901 ..	235·50	..	..

During the twenty years (1931-51), the number added to the population was three times as many as during the ten years (1921-31) and twice as many as during the thirty years (1901-31).

PRESENT POPULATION

Part 'A' States

Name of State.	Land Area in square miles.	POPULATION 1951. Persons	Males	Females	1941 Persons	Females per 1000 of males. 1941.	1951.	Percentage Variation Increase (+) Decrease (—) 1941-51.	1931-41.	1921-31.
PART 'A' STATES—										
1. Assam	54,084	9,129,442	4,869,878	4,259,564	7,593,037	889	875	+ 20·2	+ 19·6	+ 19·3
2. Bihar	70,368	40,218,916	20,172,567	20,046,349	36,545,575	994	994	+ 10·1	+ 12·3	+ 11·6
3. Bombay	115,570	35,943,559	18,631,883	17,311,676	29,506,968	935	929	+ 21·8	+ 16·0	+ 13·2
4. Madhya Pradesh	130,323	21,327,898	10,688,811	10,639,087	19,631,615	996	995	+ 8·6	+ 10·3	+ 12·7
5. Madras	127,768	56,952,332	28,413,661	28,538,671	49,847,508	1,010	1,004	+ 14·3	+ 11·6	+ 10·0
6. Orissa	59,869	14,644,293	7,240,008	7,404,285	13,767,988	1,053	1,023	+ 6·4	+ 10·2	+ 11·9
7. Punjab	37,428	12,638,611	6,780,770	5,857,841	12,593,628	853	863	+ 0·4	+ 17·9	+ 9·9
8. Uttar Pradesh	112,523	63,254,118	33,142,457	30,111,661	56,516,622	907	909	+ 11·9	+ 13·6	+ 6·7
9. West Bengal	29,476	24,786,683	13,319,941	11,466,742	21,837,295	845	861	+ 13·5	+ 23·7	+ 7·7
TOTAL PART 'A' STATES	737,409	278,895,852	143,259,976	135,635,876	247,840,236	948	947	+ 12·6	+ 14·0	+ 10·2

Part 'B' States

Name of State.	Land Area in square miles.	POPULATION 1951. Persons	Males	Famales	1941. Persons	Females per 1,000 of males. 1941.	1951.	Percentage Variation Increase (+) Decrease (—) 1941-51.	1931-41.	1921-31.
PART 'B' STATES—										
1. Hyderabad ..	82,313	18,652,964	9,464,495	9,188,469	16,338,534	957	971	+ 14·2	+ 13·2	+ 15·8
2. Jammu and Kashmir ..	..	....	....	....	....	..	..	..	..	..
3. Madhya Bharat ..	46,710	7,941,642	4,128,308	3,813,334	7,151,502	912	924	+ 11·1	+ 13·7	+ 11·9
4. Mysore	29,458	9,071,678	4,663,858	4,407,820	7,329,140	948	945	+ 23·8	+ 11·7	+ 9·7
5. PEPSU	10,099	3,468,631	1,873,205	1,595,426	3,424,060	834	852	+ 1·3	+ 17·5	+ 8·2
6. Rajasthan ..	128,424	15,297,979	7,966,208	7,331,771	13,282,105	905	920	+ 15·2	+ 18·4	+ 14·7
7. Saurashtra ..	21,062	4,136,005	2,094,968	2,041,037	3,430,892	965	974	+ 20·5	+ 12·1	+ 13·3
8. Travancore-Cochin	9,155	9,265,157	4,615,335	4,649,822	7,492,893	1,002	1,007	+ 23·6	+ 18·9	+ 26·3
TOTAL PART 'B' STATES	327,221	67,834,056	34,806,377	33,027,679	58,449,126	937	949	+ 16·1	+ 15·1	+ 14·8

Part 'C' States

Name of State.	Land Area in square miles.	POPULATION 1951. Persons	Males	Females	1941. Persons	Females per 1,000 of males. 1941.	1951.	Percentage Variation Increase (+) Decrease (—) 1941-51.	1931-41.	1921-31.
PART 'C' STATES—										
1. Ajmer	2,425	692,506	359,572	332,934	588,960	903	926	+ 17·5	+ 15·7	+ 13·3
2. Bhopal	6,921	838,107	438,778	399,329	785,322	915	910	+ 6·8	+ 8·2	+ 5·8
3. Bilaspur	453	127,566	65,332	62,234	110,336	930	953	+ 16·4	+ 10·0	..
4. Coorg	1,593	229,255	125,333	103,922	168,726	826	829	+ 35·5	+ 6·3	..
5. Delhi	574	1,743,992	990,443	753,549	917,939	716	761	+ 90·0	+ 43·8	+ 30·6
6. Himachal Pradesh	10,600	989,437	516,317	473,120	935,359	891	916	+ 5·8	+ 11·9	+ 7·7
7. Kutch	8,461	567,825	273,363	294,462	500,800	1,096	1,077	+ 13·4	— 2·6	+ 6·3
8. Manipur	8,620	579,058	284,747	294,311	512,069	1,056	1,034	+ 13·1	+ 13·3	+ 18·4
9. Tripura	4,049	649,930	339,962	309,968	513,010	886	912	+ 26·7	+ 34·2	+ 26·7
10. Vindhya Pradesh	24,600	3,577,431	1,834,610	1,742,821	3,353,019	962	950	+ 6·7	+ 13·3	+ 9·0
TOTAL PART 'C' STATES	68,296	9,995,107	5,228,457	4,766,650	8,385,540	921	912	+ 19·2	+ 15·3	+ 11·0

Part 'D' Territories.

Name of State.	Land Area in square miles.	POPULATION 1951. Persons	Males	Females	1941. Persons	Females per 1,000 of males. 1941.	1951.	Percentage Variation Increase (+) Decrease (—) 1941-51.	1931-41.	1921-31.
PART 'D' TERRITORIES AND OTHER AREAS.										
1. Andaman and Nicobar Islands	3,143	30,963	19,036	11,927	33,768	571	627	— 8·3	+ 17·2	+ 7·4
2. Sikkim	2,745	135,646	70,961	64,685	121,520	921	912	+ 11·5	+ 10·9	+ 34·1
TOTAL	5,888	166,609	89,997	76,612	155,288	832	851	+ 7·3	+ 16·2	+ 24·6
Grand Total	1,138,814	356,891,624	183,384,807	173,506,817	314,830,190	945	946	+ 13·4	+ 14·3	+ 11·0

NOTE 1. Figures for the State of Jammu and Kashmir, and Part 'B' Tribal Areas of Assam are not included.

NOTE 2. Jammu and Kashmir: Due to special conditions prevailing there, the 1951 census operations were not carried out. The area of the State is 82,258 square miles. The 1941 census population was 4·02 millions. The population strength as determined under the Constitution (Determination of Population) Order, 1950, was 4·37 millions on March 1, 1950.

NOTE 3. Part 'B' Tribal Areas of Assam: Census Operations have never so far been carried out there. A local estimate (unverified) indicates a population strength of 560,631 persons.

Displaced Persons* Part 'A' States

Name of State.	1951 Census Provisional Totals of Displaced Persons.	Displaced Persons according to 1948 and 1949 Censuses.	Difference.
PART 'A' STATES—			
1. Assam	276,824	114,597	+ 162,227
2. Bihar	78,641	45,041	+ 33,600
3. Bombay	341,081	285,161	+ 55,920
4. Madhya Pradesh	120,886	91,507	+ 29,379
5. Madras	9,926	....	....
6. Orissa	20,926	....	....
7. Punjab	2,468,491	2,465,243	+ 3,248
8. Uttar Pradesh	475,822	412,399	+ 63,423
9. West Bengal	2,117,896	1,094,381	+ 1,023,515
TOTAL PART 'A' STATES	5,910,493	4,508,329	+ 1,371,312

Part 'B' States

Name of State.	1951 Census Provisional Totals of Displaced Persons.	Displaced Persons according to 1948 and 1949 Censuses.	Difference.
PART 'B' STATES—			
1. Hyderabad	4,035	....	....
2. Jammu and Kashmir	Due to special conditions	prevailing there, no	Census was carried out.
3. Madhya Bharat	68,457	59,333	+ 9,124
4. Mysore	7,891	....	....
5. PEPSU	380,159	325,482	+ 54,677
6. Rajasthan	312,742	260,594	+ 52,148
7. Saurashtra	60,525	35,891	+ 24,634
8. Travancore-Cochin	354	....	....
TOTAL PART 'B' STATES	834,163	681,300	+ 140,583

Part 'C' States

Name of State.	1951 Census Provisional Totals of Displaced Persons.	Displaced Persons according to 1948 and 1949 Censuses.	Difference.
PART 'C' STATES—			
1. Ajmer	71,824	92,799	— 20,975
2. Bhopal	17,933	....	....
3. Bilaspur	187	....	....
4. Coorg	11	....	....
5. Delhi	509,767	377,117	+ 132,650
6. Himachal Pradesh	5,248	5,224	+ 24
7. Kutch	11,991	....	....
8. Manipur	1,200	541	+ 659
9. Tripura	100,251	34,883	+ 65,368
10. Vindhya Pradesh	14,626	12,945	+ 1,681
TOTAL PART 'C' STATES	733,038	523,509	+ 179,407

* The provisional totals are inclusive of children born to displaced persons after their arrival in India, in Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Assam, Orissa, Madras, Vindhya Pradesh, parts of West Bengal and Bihar. They do not include such children elsewhere.

PART 'D' TERRITORY.

Name of State.	1951 Census Provisional Totals of Displaced Persons.	Displaced Persons according to 1948 and 1949 Censuses.	Difference.
PART 'D' TERRITORIES AND OTHER AREAS.			
1. Andaman and Nicobar Islands	1,545	....	....
2. Sikkim	39	....	....
TOTAL	1,584	....	....
GRAND TOTAL	7,479,278	5,713,138	+ 1,691,302

NOTE: The total number of displaced persons on March 1951 in those areas covered by the 1951 census where no special census of Displaced Persons was taken in 1948 or 1949 is 74,838.

ECONOMIC SET-UP

Until the new tables of the 1951 census are ready one has still to depend on the findings of previous enquiries. It may be stated however that whatever changes the latest census may reveal will be of a marginal nature: the essential picture will be the same as presented below which is based on enquiries held before the 1951 census.

About 44 per cent. of the population was enumerated as workers in the census of 1931. Out of this about 67 per cent. was engaged in agriculture, 10·2 per cent. in mining and industry and the rest, 22·8 per cent. in trade, transport, etc.

Carrying the analysis of industry further, there are two types of industry, cottage industry and large-scale industry. About 90 per cent. of the total industrial population is engaged in small scale or cottage industry, and 10 per cent. in large-scale industry. The average monthly income varies from State to State. In Bombay the average income of a textile worker today is about Rs. 1,210 a year.

Turning to agriculture, the amount of land available for cultivation is about 360 mlns. acres. The number of workers in agriculture which comprises cultivating owners, tenant cultivators, etc., was 66½ mlns. according to the census of 1931. Thus the amount of land per worker works out at 5½ acres. 70 per cent. of all farms are less than 5 acres each, and a good percentage are actually less than one acre each.

The following two tables show the average annual earnings of workers* in factories† in perennial industries.

Industry	1939	1945	1946¶	1947§
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Textiles (All)	293·5	613·7	624·5	773·7
Cotton	320·2	723·4	721·8	911·3
Jute	230·8	390·5	425·0	497·6
Engineering	263·5	653·1	696·1	699·9
Minerals and Metals	457·2	601·9	599·8	890·2
Chemicals and Dyes	244·8	445·2	492·4	592·4
Paper and Printing	332·7	568·8	638·4	724·8
Wood, Stone and Glass	194·2	413·6	434·3	496·5
Skins and Hides	285·8	536·7	558·2	603·9
Ordnance Factories	361·9	642·8	721·2	754·1
Mints	367·4	667·0	858·7	1,071·2
Miscellaneous	281·2	503·2	611·8	663·1
All Industries	287·5	595·8	619·4	738·3

* All workers including clerical and supervisory staff drawing below Rs. 200 p.m.
† Factories covered by the Factories Act, 1936.
¶ Figures exclude Punjab and N.W.F.P.
§ Figures relate to Provinces in the Indian Republic excluding East Punjab.

This table shows the average daily earnings (based on figures for December) of workers in Mines:

	1939	1945	1946	1947
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Jharia Coalfields.				
Miners	0 9 9	1 2 3	1 8 3	2 5 0
Loaders	0 8 9	1 1 0	1 7 9	2 1 0
Raniganj Coalfields.				
Miners	0 9 0	1 3 9	1 8 0	2 5 3
Loaders	0 7 9	1 1 3	1 6 9	2 4 3
Pench Valley Coalfields.				
Miners	0 12 0	1 4 9	1 5 9	2 4 3
Loaders	0 7 6	0 11 0	0 12 6	1 15 9

For fuller details see under 'Labour'.

PHYSICAL TYPES

There are six physical types in India. Indian manhood, in fact, varies considerably from place to place. No one, for instance, would confuse the main types, such as Gurkhas, Sikhs, Rajputs, Nagas, Tamils, etc., nor does it take long to carry the differentiation much farther. The typical inhabitants of India—the Dravidians—differ altogether from those of Northern Asia, and more nearly resemble the tribes of Malaya, Sumatra and Madagascar. Whatever may be their origin, it is certain that they have settled in India for countless ages and that their present physical characteristics have been evolved locally. In the north-west they have been displaced by successive hordes of invaders, including Aryans, Scythians, Pathans and Moghals, and in the north-east by Mongoloid tribes allied to those of Burma. Between these foreign elements and the pure Dravidians is a borderland where the contiguous races have intermingled.

The people of India are generally divided into six main physical types. There would be seven if the Andamanese were included, but this tiny group of Negritos may be disregarded.

The Indo-Aryan type is found in the Punjab, Rajasthan and Kashmir, and has as its characteristic members the Rajputs, Khattris, and Jats. This type approaches most closely the traditional Aryan type which colonised the sub-continent. The stature is mostly tall; complexion fair; eyes dark; hair on face plentiful, head long; nose narrow and prominent but not specially long.

The Scytho-Dravidian type comprises the Maratha Brahmans, the Kunbis, and the Coorgs of Western India. It is formed probably by a mixture of Scythian and Dravidian elements. This type is distinguished by a lower stature, a greater length of head, a higher nasal index, a shorter nose, and a lower orbito-nasal index than the Aryan. All of these characters, except perhaps the last, may be due to an intermixture of varying degree with the Dravidians. In the higher groups the amount of crossing seems to have been slight; in the lower Dravidian elements are more pronounced.

The Aryo-Dravidian or Hindustani type is found in Uttar Pradesh (U.P.) in parts of Rajasthan and in Bihar and is represented in its upper strata by the Hindustani Brahman and in its lower by the Chamar. This type is probably the result of the intermixture, in varying proportions of the Indo-Aryan and Dravidian types. The head-form is long with a tendency to medium; the complexion varies from lightish brown to black; the nose ranges from medium to broad, being always broader than among the Indo-Aryans; the stature is lower than in the latter group and usually below the average according to the scale. The higher representatives of this type approach the Indo-Aryans while the lower members are in many respects not very far removed from the Dravidians. The type is essentially a mixed one, yet its characteristics are readily definable. and no one would take even an upper class Hindustani for a pure Indo-Aryan or a Chamar for a genuine Dravidian. The distinctive feature of the type, the character which gives the real clue to its origin and stamps the Aryo-Dravidian as racially different from the Indo-Aryan is to be found in the proportion of the nose.

The Mongolo-Dravidian, or Bengali type of lower West Bengal and Orissa, comprising the Bengal Brahmins and Kyasthas and other groups is peculiar to this part of India. This type is a blend of Dravidian and Mongoloid elements, with a strain of Indo-Aryan blood in the higher groups. The head is broad; the complexion is dark; hair on face usually plentiful; stature medium; nose medium, with a tendency to broad. This is one of the most distinctive types in India, members may be recognised at a glance. Within its own habitat the type extends to the Himalayas on the north and to Assam on the east, and probably includes the bulk of the population of Orissa, the western limit coinciding approximately with the hilly country of Chota Nagpur and West Bengal.

The Mongoloid type of the Himalayas, Nepal and Assam is represented by the Kanets of Lahul and Kulu; the Lepchas of Darjeeling and Sikkim; the Limbus, Murmis and Gurungs of Nepal; and the Bodo of Assam. The head is broad; the complexion is dark, with a yellow tinge; hair on face scanty; stature short or below average; nose fine to broad; face characteristically flat; eyelids often oblique.

The Dravidian type extends from Ceylon to the valley of the Ganges and pervades Madras, Hyderabad, Madhya Pradesh (C.P.), most of central India and Chota Nagpur. Its most characteristic representatives are the Paniyans of Malabar and the Santals of Chota Nagpur.

Probably this was the original type of the population of India, now modified to a varying extent by the admixture of Aryan, Scythian, and Mongoloid elements. In typical specimens of this type the stature is short or below mean; the complexion very dark, approaching black; hair plentiful, with an occasional tendency to curl; eyes dark; head long; nose very broad, sometimes depressed at the root, but not so as to make the face appear flat. This race, the most primitive of the Indian types, occupies the oldest geological formation in India, the medley of forest clad ranges, terraced plateau, and undulating plains which stretch roughly speaking, from the Vindhyas to Cape Comorin. On the east and the west of the peninsular area the domain of the Dravidian is coterminous with the Ghats, while further north it reaches on one side to the Aravallis, and on the other to the Rajmahal Hills. Where the original characteristics have been unchanged by contact with Indo-Aryan or Mongoloid people, the type is remarkably uniform and distinctive. The Dravidian is a hard labourer and is found wherever there is demand for hard manua labour whether hoeing tea in Assam, the Duars, or Ceylon, or doing scavenger's work in the streets of Calcutta, Rangoon and Singapore, he is recognizable at a glance by his black skin, his squat figure, and the negro-like proportion of his nose. In the upper strata of the vast social deposit which is here treated as Dravidian these typical characteristics tend to thin and disappear, but even among them traces of the original stock survive in varying degrees.

RELIGION, COMMUNITY

The table below shows the distribution of population by community in the Indian Union according to the 1941 census :—

States	Total Population	Hindus	Muslims	Buddhists	Sikhs	Indian Christians	Parsis	Anglo-Indians	Jains	Tribes	Rest
	(*In thousands*)										
India	3,18,776	2,39,381	42,691		4,112	5,635			1,433	24,754	755
Assam	7,685	3,262	1,754		4	36			6	2,607	16
Bihar	36,546	26,607	4,719		13	25			5	5,165	11
Bombay	29,384	23,217	2,463		9	371			455	2,712	157
Madhya Pradesh (C.P. & Berar) ..	19,648	14,230	811		15	52			86	4,440	13
Madras	49,841	43,247	3,927		..	2,022			30	562	52
Orissa	13,768	10,053	166		..	37			1	3,509	3
Punjab (E. Punjab)	12,697	5,516	4,427		2,336	116			30	..	273
Uttar Pradesh (U.P.)	56,346	46,854	8,692		233	163			103	293	8
West Bengal	21,837	14,726	5,544		15	60			10	1,371	111
Hyderabad	16,338	13,310	2,097		5	216			25	678	7
Jammu and Kashmir	4,022	808	3,074		66	3			1	29	41
Madhya Bharat	7,141	5,462	475		5	8			90	1,097	3
Mysore	7,329	6,687	485		..	99			33	9	16
Patiala & E. P. States U.	3,424	1,192	899		1,308	4			7	..	15
Rajasthan	13,085	9,878	1,256		79	4			313	1,551	5
Saurashtra	3,556	2,980	436		2	2			125	2	1
Travancore-Cochin	7,493	4,439	543		..	2,370			..	138	2
Vindhya Pradesh	3,569	3.250	95		..	1			13	210	..
Ajmer	589	381	90		1	6			19	91	..
Bhopal	785	597	110		..	..			6	71	..
Bilaspur	110	108	1		..	..			..	..	..
Coorg	169	131	14		..	3			..	20	..
Delhi	918	567	305		16	10			11	..	8
Himachal Pradesh	935	901	29		4	..			..	..	1
Kutch	501	318	117		..	..			64	1	..
Manipur	512	304	30		..	26			..	153	..
Tripura	513	348	124		..	..			..	34	8
Andaman & Nicobar Islands	34	8	8		1	1			..	11	4

LANGUAGES

A note on language will not be out of place here. According to a linguistic survey no fewer than 250 languages are spoken in India. But they all fall into four main groups, the Munda languages, the Dravidian languages, the Indo-Aryan languages and the Tibeto-Chinese languages.

The Munda languages are spoken by the pre-Dravidian inhabitants of India now confined chiefly to the hills and jungles of the Chota Nagpur plateau.

The principal Dravidian languages, Tamil, Telugu, Malayalam, Kanarese and Tulu have a much wider distribution. Once they were spoken over the whole of India. Now they are limited to peninsular India. The last-named language Tulu is indeed spoken in just one district in the whole country, *viz.*, South Canara in the Madras State.

The Indo-Aryan languages were introduced by the invaders coming from the north-west. But the languages have now spread over the whole of the north and have penetrated further south than the Vindhyas. Going east we find Pahari, Lahnda, Punjabi, Kashmiri, Hindi, Bihari, Oriya and Bengali. Going south we find Rajasthani, Gujarati and Marathi. Another language which is generally grouped with Hindi is Urdu. Urdu was born in the bazaars of the northern parts of the subcontinent when the Moghul soldiers came into touch with the local population. Urdu may be called Persianized Hindi and is widely spoken by the Muslims in the north and in certain areas by the Hindus as well.

The Tibeto-Chinese languages are not important as they are confined wholly to Himalayan hill tribes such as Lepchas.

The following figures (based on the 1941 census) are intended to give some idea of the distribution in the sub-continent of the various languages mentioned above :—

Hindi	79,000,000
Bengali	54,000,000
Telugu	26,000,000
Marathi	21,000,000
Tamil	20,000,000
Punjabi	16,000,000
Rajasthani	14,000,000
Kanarese	12,000,000
Oriya	11,000,000
Gujarati	11,000,000
Malayalam	10,000,000
Sindhi	4,000,000
Assamese	2,000,000
Kashmiri	1,500,000
Munda languages ..	4,000,000

Literacy according to the 1941 census was very low, being only about 12 per cent.

URBAN AND RURAL

Passing next to the question of the distribution of population between urban and rural areas we find from the 1941 census that the percentage of the urban population to the rural is about 15, which shows an increase of 3 per cent. over the 1931 census due partly to natural increase and partly to migration from rural areas.

The percentage of urban population ranges from 3 in Assam to 24.0 in Bombay which is the most urbanized of the major States. The absolute figures for the major States are given in a table further on while the table showing the percentage of urban population is given below :—

INDIAN REPUBLIC

	Percentage of urban population.
Madras	15·97
Bombay	23·92
Bengal, West	21·76
Uttar Pradesh (U.P.)	12·46
Punjab	15·09
Bihar	5·37
Madhya Pradesh	11·29
Assam	3·0
Orissa	2·99
Ajmer	36·68
Coorg	0·06
Andaman and Nicobar Islands ..	..
Bilaspur	2·6
Kutch	18·0
Delhi	75·78
Himachal Pradesh	3·4
Madhya Bharat	15·33
PEPSU	14·57
Saurashtra	25·6
Vindhya Pradesh	5·49
Bhopal	17·72
Hyderabad	13·4
Kashmir	10·3
Mysore	18·4

India is so often referred to as a land of villages that one is apt to overlook the real dimensions of the urban population. It is true that only about 15 per cent. of the population is urban ; but then it is a 15 per cent. of 356 mlns. (1951 census) which works out to a total of about 53 mlns., that is to say, 3 mlns. more than the population of Britain which is always referred to as a highly urbanized country.

*City.	Population 1951.	Population 1941.	Population 1931.
Calcutta with Howrah ..	2,992,997	2,488,083	1,388,644
Bombay ..	2,840,011	1,489,883	1,161,383
Madras ..	1,429,985	777,481	647,230
Hyderabad with Secunderabad	1,085,074	739,159	466,894
Delhi ..	1,743,892	521,849	347,539
Ahmedabad ..	788,310	591,267	310,000
Bangalore with Civil and Military Station ..	..	406,760	306,470
Lucknow ..	..	387,177	274,659
Amritsar ..	..	391,010	264,840
Poona ..	485,486	258,197	198,078
Kanpur ..	..	487,324	243,755
Agra ..	..	284,149	229,764
Nagpur ..	..	301,957	215,165
Banares ..	..	263,100	205,315
Allahabad ..	..	260,630	183,914
Madurai ..	361,954	239,144	182,018
Srinagar ..	..	207,787	173,573
Patna ..	..	175,706	145,432
Sholapur ..	266,009	212,620	144,654
Surat ..	222,884	..	..
Baroda ..	211,413	..	..
Hubli ..	129,547	..	..
Jaipur ..	..	175,810	150,579
Bareilly ..	..	192,688	144,031
Tiruchirapalli ..	218,565	159,566	142,843
Meerut ..	..	169,290	136,709
Indore ..	..	203,695	147,100
Jabalpur ..	..	178,339	124,382
Ajmer ..	..	147,258	119,524
Baroda ..	..	153,301	112,860
Moradabad ..	..	142,414	110,562
Tinnevelly with Palamcottah ..	..	91,644	109,068
Mysore ..	..	150,540	107,142
Salem ..	202,312	129,702	102,179
Lashkar ..	..	182,492	126,949
Surat ..	..	171,443	98,936
Jamshedpur	..	148,711	83,738
Jullundur ..	..	135,283	89,030
Kolar ..	..	133,859	85,103
Coimbatore ..	194,555	130,348	95,198
Trivandrum	187,122	128,365	96,016
Aleppey ..	115,930	..	..
Bikaner ..	..	127,226	85,927
Jodhpur ..	..	126,842	94,736
Kozhikode ..	158,020	126,352	99,273
Vijayawada ..	160,831	..	..
Guntur ..	123,829	..	..
Mangalore ..	117,095	..	..
Kakinada ..	100,054	..	..
Rajahmundry	105,300	..	..
Vellore ..	106,603	..	..
Vishakapatnam ..	107,815	..	..
Tanjore ..	100,787	..	..
Tollygunge ..	150,527	..	..
Bhatpara ..	133,762	..	..
Garden-Reach	110,194	..	..
South Suburbs (Behala) ..	102,801	..	..
Koli-Aligarh	..	112,655	83,878
Ludhiana ..	..	111,639	68,586
Shahjahanpur	..	110,163	83,764
Saharanpur	..	108,263	76,655
Gaya ..	..	105,223	88,005
Jhansi ..	..	103,254	93,112
Bhavnagar ..	..	102,851	75,594

It is interesting to note how the urban element has gradually risen over a number of years from 1921. Here is a short table which makes the trend in the Indian Republic quite clear.

INDIAN REPUBLIC

Year	Rural	Urban
1921	88·7	11·3
1931	87·9	12·1
1941	86·1	13·9

On any showing India is in for urbanization on a big scale, which will affect more pronouncedly really large towns than the smaller ones. Much of this urbanization is attended by the usual evils of lack of control, squatters' freedom and general squalor. The approach to some of the fast growing towns like Delhi or Calcutta are hideously defaced by brick-fields, squatters' camps and general riff-raff. The matter of the spreading town cries aloud for a plan.

The rate of growth is much higher in the larger units than in the smaller ones. Reasons : First, industrialization which has for instance largely created Coimbatore as a modern phenomenon. The case of Coimbatore is interesting as it is the first striking instance of a large town based on electric and not steam power.

A contributory cause of the growth of large towns is the fact that city life has begun to appeal to the middle and lower middle classes in India. Accommodation which is within their means and to their taste is now available. There are the huge blocks of flats with such amenities as electric lights and running water which have altered the face of cities like Bombay and Calcutta. Other city features like trams, buses, cinemas also appeal. Education is not only better in the towns it is sometimes not available in the rural areas. Thus housing, transport, and the sheer conveniences of life in the city have led to a steady stream of migration into the larger towns of India. During the war owing to the enormous demand for manual and clerical work, the stream of migration became a flood which overwhelmed cities like Bombay, Calcutta and Delhi.

AGE GROUPING

Though the following analysis is based on the 1931 census it would be broadly true of the present situation as well.

Another way of grouping the population and one which is very important from an economic point of view, is by age. The table below shows the age distribution of 10,000 males and females of the population of the sub-continent by 10-yearly age-groups at the 1931 census.

Age-groups	1931		1921	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
10–20 ..	2,086	2,062	2,087	1,896
20–30 ..	1,768	1,856	1,640	1,766
30–40 ..	1,431	1,351	1,461	1,839
40–50 ..	968	891	1,013	967
50–60 ..	561	545	619	606
60–70 ..	269	281	347	377
70 and over ..	115	125	160	180
Mean age	23.2	22.8	24.8	24.7

If we were interpreting the same figures as a ratio we should set out the position as follows :

Age-Period	Male	Female
1–4 ..	14.7	15.9
5–9 ..	13.2	12.8
10–14 ..	12.0	11.9
15–19 ..	8.9	9.4
20–24 ..	9.1	9.8
25–29 ..	8.6	8.7
30–34 ..	7.9	7.6
35–39 ..	6.4	5.9
40–44 ..	5.5	5.0
45–49 ..	4.2	3.9
50–54 ..	3.3	3.2
55–59 ..	2.3	2.3
60–64 ..	1.8	1.9
65 ..	2.1	2.3

The table makes it quite clear that the population of the sub-continent is a very young population.

One reason for grouping the inhabitants of a country by age is to show the size of its working population, that is to say, that part of the population which is engaged in producing wealth. Other things being equal, the larger the size of the working population the bigger the national dividend.

Now if we assume the working age of the population in the sub-continent is 15 to 60 about 44% of the aggregate population could be classed as workers. 'Aggregate' because in India or Pakistan women in the lower classes at any rate usually join the men-folk in their work and so can be classed as workers. In the rural areas this practice whereby women join the men in their work is probably universal. At the 1931 census, for instance, it was found that for every 1,000 men there were as many as 465 women workers. But the percentage of the working population high as it is, is actually less than the percentage for England and Wales which is 47%. If we take males only the disparity is still higher—57% as against 63%. It becomes higher still, if we extend the working age of the English people to 64—68%. Thus in the race for production India and Pakistan are handicapped as against a European country because of the age composition of their population.

The national dividend is influenced not merely by the percentage of the working population but also by the working period. Consider the following facts, for instance. Out of every 1,000 males born in the sub-continent only 541 survive to enter the working period. Out of these 541 again only 14 survive to reach the age of 60. So out of a theoretical maximum of 45 years of working life a person of 15 in India or Pakistan can expect to get only 30, while a European can look forward to 40 years of working life. The whole argument, in short, leads to two conclusions ; One, the sub-continent has a smaller proportion of people in the working age, and for every person, reaching the working age the working period which is available is also much shorter.

BIRTH-RATE

The following discussion is based on reports previous to the 1951 census.

The size of the population depends upon a country's birth and death-rates, that is by the number of births and of deaths per thousand of its population. The following table shows the birth and mortality rates for the sub-continent from 1920 to 1946 and for India alone for 1947 and 1948 :

Year	Birth-rate	Death-rate	Infant mortality
1920 ..	33	31	195
1921 ..	32	31	198
1922 ..	32	24	175
1923 ..	34	25	176
1924 ..	33	28	189
1925 ..	32	24	174
1926 ..	33	25	189
1927 ..	33	23	167
1928 ..	34	24	173
1929 ..	33	24	178
1930 ..	33	25	189
1931 ..	35	25	179
1932 ..	34	22	169
1933 ..	36	23	171
1934 ..	34	25	187
1935 ..	35	24	164
1936 ..	36	23	162
1937 ..	35	22	162
1938 ..	34	24	167
1939 ..	34	22	156
1940 ..	33	22	160
1941 ..	32·1	21·9	158
1942 ..	29·5	21·4	163
1943 ..	26·1	23·9	165
1944 ..	25·8	24·5	169
1945 ..	28·0	22·1	151
1946 ..	28·9	18·7	136
1947* ..	26·6	19·7	146
1948* ..	25·4	17·1	130·9

* See also under States.

* Relates to India after partition.

Let us take the question of the birth-rate first. The officially recorded birth-rate for 1948 was 25·4, but this is known to be an underestimate for in a backward country like India about a third of the births are likely to go unregistered, so that we would not be far wrong if we assumed that the actual birth-rate was in the neighbourhood of 35 or 36 per thousand.

Now a birth-rate of 35 or 36 is one of the highest in the world and about 16 points less than the highest possible—52. There are a few countries including Palestine whose birth-rate is higher but they are all among the smaller countries. The birth-rate of the more important countries are far below 35 and in the most advanced of them the birth-rate is as low as 20 or even 15. If we restate the same position in absolute numbers, about 1,250,000 babies were born every year from 1920-1940 in the sub-continent. Of these only a third lived to be 30, while a fourth died before they were one year old.

Reproductive Capacity.—Now the birth-rate of a people depends among other things on three important factors: the number of women of child-bearing age in the community, the number of women of child-bearing age who are married, and the age at which the women generally marry, for fertility rate is higher in the first half of the child-bearing age than in the second half.

Let us consider the position statistically first. The following table gives the proportion of women in each group per 10,000 women according to the 1931 census:

Ages	1931 per 10,000	1921 per 10,000
5–9 ..	1,280	1,494
10–14 ..	1,124	1,081
15–19 ..	938	815
20–24 ..	985	881
25–29 ..	868	885
30–34 ..	756	833
35–39 ..	595	565
40–44 ..	505	621
45–49 ..	389	346

If we assume that the reproductive period of women in the sub-continent ranges from 15 to 45 we find that for every 10,000 women there are about 5,036 women of child-bearing age, 46.47%. Converting this into absolute numbers we find there were about 75.4 mlns. women in the sub-continent in 1931 in the age-group 15-45 compared with 79.9 mlns. men. Women fell short of men by about 4·5 mlns.

In a number of European countries, on the other hand, England for instance, women are always in excess of men. In this particular age-group in England the excess of women over men is about 1.7 mlns. At first sight therefore the sex ratio in the sub-continent, would appear to be unfavourable from the reproduction point of view. But actually the sex ratio has not affected reproductive capacity because the men in the sub-continent were (and still) in the habit of finding their wives from a much wider age-group than elsewhere and were not averse to marrying much below their age.

Again we have assumed the reproductive period of women in the sub-continent to be from 15-45. Actually, there is a great deal of evidence to show that the period starts at least two years earlier at the age of 13; but then as it also ends two years below 45 it is not necessary to make any adjustments: the variations at either end cancel each other. In any case, we have no figures except for five year age periods on which to base any calculations.

Incidence of Marriage—A second factor which influences reproductive capacity is the number of women of child-bearing age who are married.

Here is a table which gives the proportion of married women per thousand women at the same ages:

Ages	1931 per thousand	1921 per thousand
15–20 ..	818	771
20–25 ..	886	877
25–30 ..	869	863
30–35 ..	824	797
35–40 ..	703	727
40–45 ..	627	599
45–50 ..	473	527

In 1931, that is to say, about 49.3% of women were recorded as married. The corresponding figure for England and Wales was 41.3. The reason for the disparity between the figures for the sub-continent and those for England is that there are more men than women in the sub-continent, and marriages are mostly arranged by parents so that it is rarely that a marriageable girl goes unmarried. Also in the sub-continent people marry very young. The following table gives the number of unmarried women for every 1,000 women in the different age-groups:

Age	Unmarried per 1000
0–4	969
5–9	802
10–14	609
15–19	148
20–29	44
30–39	17
40–60	11
60 and over	11

Only 1% of the women are unmarried by the time they reach 60 which compares favourably with 13.6% in England and Wales. Notice the fall from the age-group 15-19 to the age-group 20-29. By the time they are 29 almost all marriageable girls are married.

Fertility Rate—There is yet another point which has to be taken into account when calculating the reproductive capacity of a people. In the child-bearing period itself the frequency of child-bearing varies from age to age. The earlier years, and 15-25 particularly, are markedly more fertile than the later ones in the reproductive span, so that distribution by age of reproductive women is as important as the proportion which the women in the aggregate bear to the total population. When we look up the appropriate table we find that the first half of the reproductive period contains as many as 60% of women of child-bearing age. The corresponding figure for England is 53.5%.

To sum up, about 80% of the women in the age-group 15-45 are married and of these 64% are in the age-group 15-30 when the rate of fertility is very high.

That brings us to the last of the elements which go to make up reproductive capacity—the rate of fertility. Fertility rate is different from birth-rate. Birth-rate is the number of children born per thousand of a people. Fertility rate is the frequency of births among the women. The fertility rate only shows how prolific the women are.

The only data which we possess (we are writing at a time when the findings of the 1951 census are not yet public) for calculating fertility rate for the sub-continent relate to Cochin and Travancore but then these data can be taken as representative for the sub-continent as a whole. The following table gives the fertility rates for married women in Cochin and also for purposes of comparison those for married women in England and Wales:—

Age period	Cochin	England and Wales
15–19	224	372
20–24	249	267
25–29	253	187
30–34	246	127
35–39	182	81
40–44	120	33
Total Fertility	6,370	5,335

Thus we find that while the disparity between the birth-rates in the sub-continent and in England is very great, the disparity between the fertility rates is very narrow. The average woman in India or Pakistan leaves about 6 children behind her while the average English woman leaves about 5. Contrary to general impression the Indian or Pakistani woman is not very much more fecund than the English woman. And if we consider certain national habits like the use of contraceptives, for instance, it may turn out that the Indian or Pakistani woman is actually less fecund than the English woman.

A second point which we notice is that the fertility rate among English women varies more sharply from age-group to age-group than the fertility rate among women in the sub-continent. The fertility rate among English women belonging to the first age-group, is more than ten times that among English women belonging to the last age-group, while the corresponding ratio for Indian or Pakistani women is only 2.

DEATH-RATE

So far we have been concerned with the question of birth-rate and allied problems. But the population of a country depends not only on its birth-rate but also on its death-rate. The death-rate indeed affects the aggregate population in a double sense. In the first place it reduces the number of people who are living, and secondly it reduces future accretion by killing off potential mothers. The effects of mortality must therefore be studied in both these aspects.

The death-rate and the infant mortality rate have already been given in a previous table. For purposes of comparison the death-rate for the sub-continent may be set out once again along with the death-rates for a number of other countries *.

	1911–13	1921–25	1926–30	1931–35	1936	1937	1938	1939
Sub-continent	29.9	26.0	23.5	24.3	22.6	22.4	24.3	21.1
Germany	14.8	13.3	11.2	11.8	11.8	11.7	11.6	12.3
France	19·7	17·2	15·7	16·8	15·3	15·0	15·4	15·3
U.K.	14.2	12.4	12.5	12.3	12.3	12.8	11.8	12.2
U.S.A.	14.1	11.8	10.9	11.8	11.6	11.3	10.6	10.6
Australia	10.9	9.5	9.0	9.3	9.5	9.4	9.6	9.9
Japan	20.7	21.7	17.8	19.3	17.6	19.1	17.6	17.6

* See also under 'Public Health'.

Even as it is the death-rate in the sub-continent is high. But these figures are really not comparable for while vital statistics are very accurate in every one of the countries cited above they are notoriously defective in India or Pakistan. It is difficult to say how faulty the figures are but according to one estimate an average death-rate of 33 for the sub-continent would be near enough. Assuming that is so we have a death-rate in India or Pakistan which is nearly double that of Japan, a little more than double that of France, and over three times that of Australia.

If instead of converting the figure into a ratio we simply put down the total number of deaths in India and Pakistan, we will get some idea of the enormous scale of Indian mortality. The average recorded deaths per year in the sub-continent from 1921-1938 were 6.40 mlns. But the total actual deaths were probably in excess of 8 mlns. Compare this with the scale of mortality in Europe. The total number of deaths per year in Europe minus Russia was 5.28 mlns. This means that in the years between 1921 and 1938 about 54 mlns. more people died in India and Pakistan than in Europe minus Russia. Or to put it differently about the same number of people died in the sub-continent between 1921 and 1938 as the population of Britain and Canada taken together.

Distribution of Death-Rate:—Not only is the death-rate in the sub-continent high but the distribution of death according to age and sex is not very favourable either. Consider the figures for deaths per 10,000 of either sex given in the table below:

Age group	Male	Female	Female as percentage of male
0–1 ..	1,844	1,671	95·5
1–4 ..	376	346	92.0
5–9 ..	100	99	99.0
10–14 ..	63	63	100.0
15–19 ..	89	106	119.0
20–29 ..	95	119	125.3
30–39 ..	126	113	105.6
40–49 ..	187	163	87.2
50–59 ..	318	283	89.0
All ages ..	236	119	..

As we have already said the death-rate in the sub-continent is high all along the scale. It is very high among first year infants—about 20% of them die every year, 60% of them in the first week after birth. In the second age-group the death-rate comes down but compared with European standards it is still very high. Then from 5 year onwards it continues to fall till the 10-14 age-group is reached when it starts rising again till it reaches the climax in the 50-59 and over group.

Now considering the same figures from the point of view of sex distribution we find that during infancy and childhood the female death-rate is lower than the male. In the 10-14 age-group it is about equal. Then the female death-rate begins to overtake the male. In the age-group 15-29 the female death-rate is higher. Then it begins to fall below that of the male, and thenceforth is always lower than the male.

Thus we find that the odds against women are specially high in the reproductive age which means that maternal mortality is abnormally high in the sub-continent. There are no records for maternity mortality for the sub-continent as a whole. But two enquiries, one made in 1933 and the other in 1936 reveal that the average mortality rate might be in the neighbourhood of 24 per thousand births. That is to say, the maternal death-rate in the sub-continent is about eight times as high as that in England and Wales.

Effect on Income—The incidence of mortality in the sub-continent specially the distribution by age greatly hampers economic advancement. The reason for this will be clear if we follow the progress of a group of 1,000 newly born babies and see what happens as they move from infancy to old age through youth and manhood. The following table shows how many of a group of 1,000 babies survive through successive stages to contribute to the country's economic wealth.

Age	Sub-continent		England	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
1 ..	751	768	928	945
5 ..	602	628	901	920
10 ..	565	593	890	911
15 ..	541	568	883	904
20 ..	512	528	872	894
25 ..	478	479	858	881
30 ..	439	427	844	868
35 ..	395	373	829	853
40 ..	346	318	809	837
45 ..	294	264	784	817
50 ..	243	215	750	790
60 ..	149	132	636	702
70 ..	70	66	434	531

Interpreting the figures we find that about 250 people have died before the first year is reached. By the age of 5 another 150 have dropped out. With the age of 20 when a person is mature enough to take a hand in the business of production only about half are left. And in the age-group 25-50 which period represents the major part of a man's working life there are on an average only about 360 people to shoulder the whole burden.

If we now turn to conditions in England we see how different the picture is. After the first five years are over, the loss is insignificant. And in the age group which is most crucial for the present purpose there are as many as 750 men out of the original 1,000 to enter into the business of production.

Applying the same analysis to the incidence of mortality among women about 450 die before they enter the reproduction stage, and of those who enter the reproduction stage only 346 live through the whole of it. Second, the heavy mortality among women in the child-bearing age leads to scarcity of partners for married life. One way in which this difficulty is circumvented is by forming unequal partnerships, unequal in the sense that the difference in age between a husband and wife is very great. Though this situation leaves little scope for spinsterhood among women it produces a great number of widows. In 1931 as many as 15.5% of all women in the sub-continent were recorded as widows while the corresponding percentage in England was only 8.7. The incidence of widowhood is particularly high in the reproductive stage—about 14%. Going up the scale we find that as the proportion of spinsters diminishes the proportion of widows increases.

Causes of Mortality—We can wind up this section with a short note on the chief causes of mortality in the sub-continent.

The overwhelming majority of deaths are caused by such typical tropical diseases as small-pox, typhoid, dysenteries, cholera and malaria. Tuberculosis which is one of the biggest killers in the larger cities continues to spread. Malnutrition and nutritional diseases are very common. This is no surprise considering the general poverty of the people. In fact, it would be no exaggeration to say that poverty and the consequent lack of vitality and resisting power are the root cause of the overwhelming majority of deaths from diseases in the sub-continent. Remedies for most of the diseases mentioned above exist but no medicine can be of any help where a patient has little or no reserves on which he can call in time of danger. This is the chief reason why in a general campaign against disease measures aimed at raising the average income of the citizen will bring in a quicker return than an extension of medical facilities. In other words, the most import single disease which has to be fought and overcome in the sub-continent is poverty.

The figures below are for the larger cities like Calcutta, Bombay or Madras because they are generally more accurate than figures for the smaller towns or rural areas. Here is a table which shows the specific death-rates per thousand for Calcutta, Bombay and Madras for 1949.

—	Calcutta	Bombay	Madras
Tuberculosis	120	113	69
Dysentery and Diarrhœa ..	156	79	301
Typhoid ..	58	53	10
Cholera ..	84	0.0	19

Turning to infant mortality figures in the larger towns we find that there has been on the whole some improvement as the following table shows:

City	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947
Bombay	248	250·2	246·3	267·9	212·2	201·5	211·4	95·1	197·4	203·0	190·4	195·4	166·6
Calcutta	239	241·6	252·7	218·6	205·4	212·5	..	166·8	427·7	429·8	288·6	243·4	269·3
Madras	227	218·3	223·8	222·1	241·6	205·7	208·9	196·8	247·3	284·3	213·8	183·0	196·0
Lucknow	224	224·4	223·5	226·4	212·2	214·4	134·3	210·0	189·0	174·7	204·7	165·4	188·5
Nagpur	261	283·5	234·6	264·2	226·2	294·6	218·8	275·5	201·9	228·0	275·1	194·0	286·8
Delhi	196	170·0	187·4	156·0	169·9	173·8	185·9	177·3	196·0	186·0	154·0	146·6	178·0
Ahmedabad	280	303·4	280·2	283·0	267·4	310·2	133·2	293·1	263·5	277·5	186·5	235·9	239·5

Special causes contribute to the high mortality of infants in the sub-continent.

Owing to the custom of early marriage, cohabitation and child birth commonly take place before the woman is physically mature and this, combined with the primitive and insanitary methods of midwifery, seriously affects the health and vitality of the mother and through her of the child. If the child survives the pre-natal and natal chances of congenital debility and the risks of child birth, it is exposed to the dangers of death in the early months of life from diarrhœa or dysentery. According to the Executive Health Officer of Bombay City, by far the greater number of infantile deaths are

due to infantile debility and malformation, including premature birth, with respiratory diseases coming next, then convulsions, then diarrhœa and enteritis.

There has been some reduction in the general rate of mortality due to specific diseases over the last three decades :

Year	Cholera	Small-pox	Plague
1920 ..	0.6	0.4	0.4
1925 ..	0.5	0.3	0.5
1930 ..	1.3	0.3	0.3
1931 ..	0.9	0.1	0.2
1932 ..	0.3	0.2	0.2
1933 ..	0.3	0.4	0.2
1934 ..	0.8	0.3	0.3
1935 ..	0.8	0.3	0.1
1936 ..	0·6	0·4	0·04
1937 ..	0.4	0.2	0.1
1938 ..	0.9	0.1	0.06
1939 ..	0.4	0.2	0.1
1940 ..	0.3	0.3	0.7
1941 ..	0·8	0·2	0·04
1942 ..	0·7	0·09	0·04
1943 ..	1·5	0·2	0·05
1944 ..	1·0	0·7	0·07
1945 ..	0·9	0·4	0·09
1946 ..	0·5	0·2	0·1
1947* ..	0·4	0·1	0·3

* After partition.

N.B.—Part of this section is based on D. Ghosh's *Pressure of Population and Economic Efficiency in India* which represents some of the latest work done in this field. The figures for languages were taken from Dudley Stamp's " Geography."

For more statistics on population see under States.

Manners and Customs

Next to the complexion of the people, which varies from fair to black, the tourist's attention in India is drawn to their dress and personal decoration. In its simplest form the dress of a Hindu consists of a piece of cloth round the loins. Many an ascetic, who regards dress as a luxury, wears nothing more, and he would dispense with even so much if the police allowed him to. The Muslim always covers his legs, generally with trousers, sometimes with a piece of cloth tied round the waist and reaching to the ankles. Men and women on the hills who at one time wore a few leaves before and behind and were totally innocent of clothing, do not appear today within the precincts of civilisation and will not meet the tourist's eye. Children, either absolutely nude or with a piece of metal hanging from the waist in front, may be seen in the streets in the most advanced cities, and in the homes of the rich. The child Krishna, with all the jewels on his person, is nude in pictures and images.

In parts of India the Hindu dress, the loin-cloth comes nearly down to the feet. On the Malabar coast, the ends are left loose in front. In the greater part of the country they are tucked up behind—a fashion which is supposed to befit the warrior, or one end is gathered up in folds before and the other tucked up behind. The simplest dress for the trunk is a scarf thrown over the left shoulder, or round both the shoulders like a Roman toga. Under this garment is often worn a coat or a shirt.

When an Indian appears in his full indigenous dress, he wears a long robe, reaching at least down to the calves: the sleeves may be wide, or long and sometimes puckered from the wrist to the elbow. Before the Europeans introduced buttons, a coat was fastened by ribbons, and the fashion is not obsolete. The Muslim prefers to button his coat to the left, the Hindu to the right. A shawl is tied round the waist over the long coat, and serves as a belt, in which one may carry money or a weapon, if allowed.

The greatest variety is shown in the head-dress. More than seventy shapes of caps, hats, and turbans, may be seen in the city of Bombay. In the Punjab and Uttar Pradesh, in West Bengal, and in Madras other varieties prevail. Cones and cylinders, domes and truncated pyramids, high and low, with sides at different angles, folded brims, projecting brims, long strips of cloth wound round the head or the cap in all possible ways, ingenuity culminating perhaps in the "parrot's beak" of the Maratha turban—all these fashions have been evolved by different communities and in different places, so that a trained eye can tell from the head-covering whether the wearer is a Hindu, Muslim or Parsi, and whether he hails from Poona or Dharwar, Ahmedabad or Bhavnagar.

Fashion Variations—Fashions often vary with climate and occupation. The Bombay fisherman may wear a short coat and a cap, and may carry a watch in his pocket: yet, as he must work for long hours in water, he does not cover his legs, but suspends only a coloured kerchief from his waist in front. The poorer people in West Bengal and Madras do not cover their heads, except when they work in the sun or must appear respectable.

Many well-to-do Indians notably Christians and Parsis wear European dress at the present day, or a compromise between the Indian and European costumes. Most Parsis however have retained their own head-dress, and many have not borrowed the European collar and cuffs with the European costume. The majority of the people do not use shoes: those who can afford them wear sandals, slippers and shoes, and a few cover their feet with stockings and boots after the European fashion in public.

On ceremonial or religious occasions indigenous dress is almost always preferred and with the recent change in the political landscape, it is possible that blind imitation will give place to intelligent selection.

There is also a certain tendency to economise in the use of cloth in times of scarcity, and fashions once introduced often remain. One way in which people in urban areas try to meet scarcity is to make, what they call, 'bush shirt' or 'bush coat' which is really a cross between a coat and a shirt and can be made to do duty for either.

Women's Costumes—The usual dress of a woman consists of a long piece of cloth tied round the waist, with folds in front, and one end brought over the shoulder or the head. The folds are sometimes drawn in and tucked up behind. In the greater part of the country women wear a bodice: on the Malabar coast many do not, but merely throw a piece of cloth over the breast. In some communities petticoats, or drawers, or both are worn. Many Muslim ladies wear gowns and scarfs over them. The vast majority of Muslim women are *gosha* and their dress and persons are hidden by a veil when they appear in public: a few of the converts from Hinduism have not, however, borrowed the custom. In the north, Hindu women have generally adopted the Muslim practice of seclusion. In the Deccan and Southern India they have not.

As a rule the hair is daily oiled, combed, parted in the middle of the head, plaited and rolled into a chignon, by most women. Among high caste Hindus, widows sometimes shave their heads in imitation of certain ascetics, or monks and nuns. Hindu men do not, as a rule, completely shave their heads, some Muslims, however, specially in Malabar, do. The orthodox remove the hair from a part of the head in front, over the temples, and near the neck and grow it in the centre, the quantity grown depending upon the fancy of the individual. Nowadays many have their hair combed in the European fashion which is also followed by Parsis and Christians. A great many Muslims grow beards. But most Hindus do not, except in places as in the north where Muslim influence was paramount in the past. Parsis and Christians follow their individual inclinations. Hindu ascetics, known as Sadhus or Bairagis as distinguished from Sanyasis, do not clip their hair, but coil it into a crest, in imitation of the God Shiva.

Hindu women wear more ornaments than women of any other community. Ornaments bedeck the head, the ears, the nose, the neck, the arms, wrists, fingers, the waist and the toes until motherhood is attained, and by some even later. Children wear anklets. Each community affects its peculiar ornaments, though imitation is not uncommon. Serpents with several heads and flowers, like the lotus, the rose and the champaks, are among the most popular objects of representation in gold or silver.

Caste Marks—Caste marks constitute a mode of personal decoration peculiar to Hindus, especially of the higher castes. The simplest mark is a round spot on the forehead. It represents prosperity or joy, and is omitted in mourning and on fast-days. Among certain communities absence of the mark might indicate that the person is a widow. The mark may be red, or yellowish as when it is made with ground sandalwood paste. The worshippers of Vishnu draw a vertical line across the spot to represent Lakshmi who is the goddess of prosperity. A more elaborate mark on the forehead has the shape of a U or a V, generally with a central line, sometimes without it, to represent Vishnu's foot. The worshippers of Shiva adopt horizontal lines, made with sandalwood paste or ashes. Some Vaishnavas stamp their temples, near the corners of the eyes, with figures of Vishnu's conch and disc. Other parts of the body are also similarly marked. The material used is a kind of yellowish clay.

To smear the arms and the chest with sandal-wood paste is a favourite kind of toilet, especially in the hot season. Beads of Tulsi or sacred Basil, and berries of Rudraksha *etoeocarpus ganitrus*, strung together are worn round their necks by Vaishnavas and Shaivas respectively. The Lingayats, a Shaiva sect suspend from their necks a metallic casket containing the Linga or phallus of their god. Bairagis, *i.e.*, ascetics, besides wearing Rudraksha rosaries round their necks and matted hair, smear their bodies with ashes. Religious mendicants suspend from their necks figures of the gods in whose name they beg. Strings of cowries may also be seen round their necks. Muslim dervishes sometimes carry peacock's feathers.

Hindu women mark their foreheads with a red spot or horizontal line. High caste widows, as is mentioned above, are forbidden to exhibit this sign of happiness, nor may they deck themselves with flowers or ornaments. Flowers are worn in the chigaon. Hindu women smear their faces, arms and feet sometimes with a paste of turmeric, so that they may shine like gold. It is not always possible to say why a particular colour has been selected. The red liquid with which the evil eye is averted may recall the blood of the animal slaughtered for the purpose in former times. But in many other cases this particular colour has no such associations. The Muslim dervish affects green, the Sikh Akali is fond of blue, the Sanyasi adopts orange for his robe, and no reason can be assigned for the choice.

Festivals and Observances

Bara Wafat—(Death on the 12th) is called in Bengal Fatiha-i-Duwazdahum (Prayers of the 12th). In Turkey and Egypt the day is known as Mauludu-'n-Nabi (Birth of the Prophet). The date is 12, Rabi I.

It is a joint celebration of the birth and the death of the Muslim Prophet. In some parts of the country it is celebrated only as the birthday of the Prophet. (Jashn-i-Milad-Sharif). It is believed that his birth and death took place on the same day, although there are differences of opinion of this question. It is a great day of feasting for Muslims (the Wahhabis, however, do not observe it; they regard it to be an innovation or *Bidat*). On this occasion the life story of the Prophet is recited and its points of excellence stressed. Prayers are offered for the benefit of his soul. Prayers are also read over cooked food which is then given to the poor. Some observe the feast on the second day of the month. As the date is disputed, the more devout read the prayers on all the days from the 1st to the 12th day of the month.

Dasara (DASHAMA = TEN DAYS).—This festival is held on the 10th of Ashwin Shuddh (Oct.). It is called *Durga Puja* or *Durgotsava*, and is supposed to relate to the autumnal equinox. The festival commemorates the victory of Devi, wife of Shiva, over the buffalo-headed demon Mahishasura. Her image is worshipped for nine days and afterwards consigned to the river. This is also the day on which Rama marched against Ravana, the demon king of Lanka (modern Ceylon). Early in the morning Hindus perform *puja* to their household gods or religious books. Marathas and Kshatriyas, or those who consider themselves of the martial race, worship their weapons and ask protection for them throughout the year in the faith that, to the propitiousness of the sword, they owe every prosperity. In the afternoon they go to the temple in procession.

The day is also considered most auspicious by the Hindus to begin education of their children. The nine preceding days of Dasara are called *navaratra*, a compound word for 'nine nights'. During this period devotees of *Durga* engage a Brahman to read hymns before her image, extolling her exploits and describing her rewards to her votaries. On the ninth day, at every temple of *Durga*, the sacred fire is made and fed with rice and ghee to the chanting of *mantras*. It is customary among Bania women to keep up a dance called *garba* during these nine nights.

The celebration of Dasara is also said to owe its origin to the Pandavas (the five sons of Pandu) who selected this day as an auspicious one for making preparations for their war with their paternal cousins, the Kauravas, which is narrated in detail in the *Mahabharata*.

In modern times Dasara is observed with great pomp in Mysore State.

Dipavali—(Popularly termed Divali or Dewali).—Dipa means a lamp and Dipavali means a row or collection of lamps. It is a festival of rejoicing at Lord Krishna's triumph over Narakasura, a demon. Rows of lamps at all places, sacred and secular, make a most beautiful feature on the occasion. Exhibitions of fireworks, crackers, etc., add to its festive nature.

On the 14th day of the waning moon of Kartika (Sept.-Oct.), known as Naraka or Bhuta Chaturdashi (Chaturdashi means 14th lunar day), Krishna destroyed Narakasura. The demon was, however, a great devotee of Krishna and had done severe penance to propitiate the Lord, but he had abducted 16,000 women for his harem and had to be destroyed for his sins. In view of his piety, however, the death anniversary was enjoined to be observed as a sacred day. In the morning a bath is taken and certain rites with a lamp made of rice-dust, etc., are observed. New dresses are worn and sweets are served.

Gahambars—These are traditional festivals of Iran (Persia) adopted by the Parsis, and mark the six festivals of the six seasons of the year. The first one commences on the 11th day of Ardibehesht (Oct. 15), the second on the 11th day of Tir (Dec. 14), the third on the 26th day of Shehnever (Feb. 27), the fourth on the 26th of Meher (March 29), the fifth on the 16th day of Dai (June 17) and the 6th on the 1st day of Gatha at the end of the Parsi year (Aug. 31). They were mainly agricultural festivals and necessarily formed formal seasonal celebrations. The Parsis hold public feasts on the days of the Gahambars.

Ganesh Chaturthi—On this day was born Ganpati, or Ganesh, who is regarded as the god of wisdom and one to be propitiated for the removal of obstacles. As such he is invoked at the commencement of all ceremonies and undertakings. There are varying versions of the circumstances attending his birth. One relates that as the god Kartikavirya was created by Shiva without connubial assistance, in like manner Ganpati was formed by his consort Parvati from the turmeric and oil scraped from her body while bathing. The loss of his human head and the substitution of that of a female elephant with one tusk are also variously explained. By some his head is said to have been cut off by Shiva when he endeavoured to prevent the god from entering the chamber of Parvati when she was performing her ablutions. According to others, it was reduced to ashes by a glance from Shani (Saturn) who, with all the gods, went to look at the newborn child, and it was replaced by that of the animal first found, which happened to be an elephant.

The fourth of Bhadrapad Shuddh (Aug.) is the period appointed for the celebration of this festival in honour of Ganpati's birth. His image is installed in Hindu households and offered *puja*. Some people keep the image for a day and a half; some for five or ten days, according to the wealth and wish of the householder. On the final day, the image is taken in procession and eventually committed to the river, sea or tank.

There is a legend that one day Ganpati while riding his favourite mouse had a fall, at which the moon laughed. Enraged at the insult, Ganpati cursed the moon and all who should look at her, but afterwards restricted it to one day, *viz.*, his birthday. Thus, on the day of Ganesh Chaturthi, Hindus avoid the moon lest they should incur any calamity during the year. If by any chance they happen to see the moon, they try to provoke their neighbours into reviling them in the belief that its ill-effects will stop at such abuse.

Gokulashtami—(Also known as Janmashtami and Krishnashtami). The occasion marks the celebration of Krishna's birth on the 8th day of the dark moon in the month of *Shravana* (July-August) or *Bhadra* (Aug.-Sept.). In each case (*i.e.*, either in *Shravana* or *Bhadra*) different sects observe it on either of the two consecutive days of Ashtami. At the temple of Puri a Brahmin and a dancing girl play the roles of Vasudeva and Devaki, the parents of Krishna.

To the Vaishnavites, the devotees of Vishnu, and therefore also of Krishna (who was one of Vishnu's incarnations), the occasion is a great festival. It is also observed by non-Vaishnavites, and thus sets an example of the spirit of toleration. Janmashtami is a day of fasting. A large part of the day is spent in worshipping Krishna, Shri (the consort of Vishnu), and Devaki the mother of Krishna. *Kirtans* or religious songs (relating to Krishna) make a notable feature. Dacca (East Pakistan) brings out a great procession on this occasion.

Grahana—Grahana means an eclipse. Hindu astronomers were the first to declare that the earth is round and Hindu astronomy was the first to discover the scientific facts relating to eclipses. The popular tradition of earlier days, however, stuck in the popular mind. And the sight of an eclipse continues to suggest to the ignorant person that *rahu* (the ascending node), the trunkless demon, is devouring the sun or the moon as the case may be. Rahu in the guise of a god had attempted to share the nectar along with the gods. As soon as his tongue had tasted the nectar (a drink having the power of making those drinking it immortal), Vishnu detected the false god and struck off his head. Trunkless, up to the throat, as the nectar had passed, Rahu became immortal. Necessarily when he gulps the divine orbs they emerge out down his throat. Acceptance of the version therefore makes it an unholy sight and the defilement of the gods entails a defilement of the earth. Defilement requires a bath and a bath in holy water is held to be particularly efficacious on this occasion. As a matter of fact, two baths are required, one at the first contact of the eclipse and another when it terminates. People flock to the Ganges and other holy sites for baths are resorted to. The occasion, naturally, reminds one of death and oblations are offered to the dead. To ensure full merit of the bath, gifts must be offered after the bath. As a matter of fact gifts make an essential condition of all Hindu fasts and festivals. The inference is justified that gifts were to some extent ordained to ensure a spirit of charity. The period of the eclipse is a period of fasting. No food should be prepared during this period. Food prepared earlier cannot be used later.

Haj—It means "setting out" or "tending towards," and is the term used for the pilgrimage to Mecca. The performance of the *Haj* is to all good Muslims a most cherished ambition. It is one of the five pillars of the practices of Islam (Arkan), and there are the highest Quranic injunctions for its observance. The rites of the *Haj* may be divided into three groups; *Farz* or compulsory; *Wajib* or obligatory (in a lower degree than *farz*); and optional. *Farz* compulsions are three in number; wearing of Ihram (two seamless garments, one worn round the waist and another thrown loosely over the shoulder), standing in *Arafat* and doing the *Tawaf* (circumambulation of the Ka'bah). The Wajib rites are five in number in the case of those who do not belong to Mecca; to run between Mount As-safa and Mount Al-Marwah, to remain in Al-Muzdali-fah, to cast stones to the three pillars of Mina (Ramyu'r-rijam), to perform a second *tawaf* and shave the head as the final ceremony. The month of Zu'l-Hijjah (the 12th Muslim month) is the month of the Haj.

Idu'l-Azha (also called Iduz-Zuha).—It is the Muslim counterpart of the Passover. It is enjoined in the *Quran* (xxii 33-38) and falls on the 10th Zul-Hijjah. The words of the prophet are: Man cannot (by any act) on this day propitiate God better than by shedding blood.

Idul-Azha means the (great) sacrificial ceremony or festival. The festival commemorates Abraham's offer to sacrifice the object dearest to him, his son Ishmael (not Issac), on Mount Mina close to Mecca (the Bible gives the name of the land as Moriah). Its observance is one of the necessary acts in the performance of the Haj. All adult Muslims who can afford it are required to make a sacrifice of an animal. If the animal is a big one (*e.g.*, a camel or a cow), it is allowed to be the joint offering of seven, (according to some authorities as many as seventy). It is meritorious to sacrifice one animal for each member of the family, but on economic grounds the sacrifice of one animal for a whole family is allowed. A fully grown-up and sound camel, cow, goat or sheep is considered best. The sacrifice is offered with a short prayer absolutely surrendering the soul to Allah and acknowledging His greatness as the accepted creed. The meat is distributed equally among the poor, the relatives and friends and members of the household.

In India the cow was the usual beast of sacrifice. In other Muslim countries the camel takes its place. The cow being held most sacred by Hindus, the more popular Muslim monarchs of India (possibly a few of Afghanistan as well) had stopped its slaughter. There is a strong sentiment against cow sacrifice today.

'Id-ul-Fitr—"The festival of *breaking fast*," called also *Ramazan-ki-'Id*, and "the feast of alms," is celebrated on the 1st of Shavval. On this day Muslims bathe, put on new clothes, apply antimony to the eyes, and perfume themselves; then distribute the *fitr* or *sadkah*, which is 2½ seers of wheat, dates, or any grain used for food, to the poor or religious mendicants. All then proceed to the *Idgah*, repeating "God is great. There is no God but God." The Mulla ascends the *mimbar* or pulpit, and after a short thanksgiving reads the *Khutbah* or sermon. He then descends to the lowest step (which with the Shiahs is the third, but the fourth with the Sunnis) and recounts the virtues of the king, and prays for him. Then a general prayer is offered, and the congregation rise with a shout of *Din!*—"Faith!" and fire of muskets. The evening is spent in rejoicing and merriment.

Khordadsal—The birthday (the 6th day of the 1st Parsi month, Farvardin, 10th Sept.) of Zarathustra, the Prophet of the Parsis. He is the earliest known founder of a great religion of faith, courage and hope. The exact date and place of his birth have not yet been fully

ascertained. Probably he was born in the province of Media, Iran (Persia) about 3,000 years ago. His great sermons are preserved in the Gathas (Parsi Scriptures). He was held in great respect by the court of Gushtasp. He professed the doctrine of monotheism and held that Ahura Mazda is the Creator of the Universe. He preached the doctrine of *Asha* or piety, which would infuse in man the spirit to fight the force of evil and attain the beatific region of Ahura Mazda.

Muharram (Ar. Muharram, 'most sacred')—The mourning held annually in remembrance of the first martyrs of Muslims, Hasan and Husain, from whom the whole race of Sayads are descended. Abu Muhammad al Hasan and Husain were the two sons of 'Ali bin Abi Taleb, the cousin, and Fatimah, the daughter of Muhammad. The Muslims are divided into two distinct sects, called the Shiahs and the Sunnis; the former regard Ali and his descendants, Hasan, Husain, Zain-ul-Abidin, Muhammad Bauqar, Jafar Sadik, and Ismail bin Jafar Sadik, as the lawful leaders after Muhammad; and the latter, the Caliphas, as Abubakar, Omar, Oosman and 'Ali—hence quarrels, animosities, and dislikes are hoarded up to be avenged during Muharram. Taziyas (a term signifying grief, applied to a representation of the mausoleum erected over the remains of Imam Husain at Karbala) made of ivory, ebony, sandalwood, cedar, and sometimes wrought in silver filigree—and indeed of every variety of material, from pure silver to bamboo and paper, according to the rank and wealth of the party—are exhibited and conveyed in procession through the streets.

Navroz, Nauroz—Jamshed of "the seven-ringed cup," who fixed the Parsi calendar, marked the day on which the Sun enters Aries (20th or 21st March) to be the New Year's Day. It is held that he chose to make the State entry on this day to the newly founded capital of Persepolis. The festival was given the name of Id of Jamshed and it has been celebrated with the greatest eclat in both Parsi and Muslim Iran (Persia). Shah Jalaluddin commenced his administrative year from this day. The Shiahs celebrate the day as Id-i-Khilafat or the festival in commemoration of 'Ali's formal succession on this day to the Caliphate. For the Parsis it is only next to Pateti as a festival of social merriment and they begin the Fasli (agricultural) year on this day. Navroz is one of the three celebrated Jashans of ancient Iran. Modern Iran celebrates the festival as a national event.

Pajjusana—A great Svetambara Jain festival. Literally it means serving with a whole-hearted devotion. Formerly it was only observed by the ascetic order, but now the laity also observe it. The festival, as is common to all Jain festivals, is marked with rigorous fasting and penance.

Two schools, both of the Svetambara sect, observe the festival on slightly different dates, either from the 12th or the 13th day of the dark fortnight to the 9th or the 5th day of the bright ortnight of Bhadra (Aug.-Sept.). In either ase it lasts for eight days. The more devout observe complete fasting during the whole period, while others fast on the last day only.

Pateti—The Parsi New Year, being the first day Hormazd of the first month Farvardin (Sept. 5). Firdausi associates many historical events of Zoroastrian Iran (Persia) with this day. It is the greatest social festival of the Parsis. In the great gatherings in their Fire Temples the cause of purity and chastity is preached.

Ram-Lila—An open-air amateur dramatic representation of selected episodes from Rama's life. The performance continues all through the Navaratra (the first nine days of the bright fortnight of Asvin) (Sept.-Oct.) and the Vijaya-Dashami (the tenth lunar day). Every day in the afternoon one act is played, the battle between Rama and Ravana being the most popular theme.

Ram-Lila is an important festival observed in the Hindi-speaking States.

Ram-Navami—It is the celebration of the birth of Rama, one of the incarnations of *Vishnu* of the Hindu Trinity, on the 9th lunar day (*navami*) of *Chaitra* (March-April). Besides Rama, his consort Sita, and brothers Lakshmana, Bharata and Shatrughna are also, worshipped. Prayers are offered to them at intervals of three hours. The day is one of strict fasting. The night is spent in worshipping. The learned give discourses upon Rama's life, stressing its excellent points as examples for man to follow. A legend (the *vrata-katha*) relating to the origin of this ceremony with pointers to the merits of observing it is recited. At Puri (*Jagannath*), an incarnation of Rama (*Vishnu*), in his representative figure *Madanamohana* is dressed as Rama and worshipped with great eclat. On this day oblations are offered to the departed ones.

In some cases, preparatory ceremonies commence from the first day of the waning moon. In the evenings sermons or discourses (kathas) are delivered in the temples of Rama. The birth is celebrated at 12 noon of the ninth day. This day is observed by a great many people as the New Year's day.

Ramzan—This Muslim fast commences from the morning after the new moon of Ramzan is first observed, and is kept each day throughout the month of this name from 4 a.m., or when the first streak of light borders the eastern horizon, till the stars are clearly discerned in the heavens. During the whole period not the slightest particle of food, or a single drop of water or any other liquid should pass the lips. The day is spent in occasional prayers, besides the usual *namaz*, and in reading the *Quran* or the life stories of the prophets. The fast is generally broken by a cooling draught, called *Dandhi*. On the 21st and 22nd the Shiahs celebrate the night of Ali, the nephew and adopted son of Muhammad, who is said to have died on one of these two nights. They perambulate the streets, carrying a *tabut* and beating their breasts. The odd ones of the last ten nights are called, *Lailat-ul-Kadr*, or 'night of power,' because it is said the *Quran* descended from heaven during one of those nights. It should be observed as a vigil.

Shiva-Ratri—The 14th night of the dark fortnight in Magha (Jan.-Feb.) is known as the night specially consecrated to Shiva. The 13th night of the waning moon of each month is held as the night of Shiva (Shiva-Ratri). The month of Shravana (July-August) is very sacred to Shiva. Hence, Shivaratri of Magha is generally called Mahashivaratri (maha meaning great).

In the *Mahabharata*, Bhishma, the great celibate, most scholarly and valorous prince, relates that King Chitrabhanu of the Ikshvaku dynasty popularised the festival. On this day when the King was fasting, a sage suggested to him that the human soul being one with God, indulgence in pleasure to the self and not infliction of pain to it by fasting would please God best. The King explained that the self of flesh and blood was not the real self and narrated the legend of a fast. In a previous life, the King was born a hunter. One dark night he lost his way in the forest and took shelter for the night on a *bilva* or bel (Indian wood apple) tree. The hunter had no food for the whole day and was ruminating on how his family would feel the double misery of starving and missing him. He wept bitter tears. To make himself comfortable and also to have a better view of the lie of the land and approaching game, he tore away and threw down the boughs and leaves obstructing his vision. It so happened that that night Shiva was under that *bilva* tree, and the tears and leaves fell on him. Shiva was propitiated by this act of the hunter, although unknowingly done, and declared that if anybody fasted on that day and worshipped him with offerings of water and *bilva* petals he would, on death be accepted in Shiva's heaven.

Another account in later Puranic stories (*e.g.*, *Linga-Purana*) narrates that a hunter spending the day imprisoned in a Shaiva monastery or temple for having failed to pay his debt, was let out on parole. His way home lay through a forest and as night grew too dark to continue the journey, he took shelter on a *bilva* tree with his store of water. Hunger, anxiety and expectation of game kept him awake all through the night. Throughout the day in the monastery he had nothing to do but listen to the incessant recitation of Shiva's name, which had made an almost indelible impression upon his weakened brain. He filled his time mumbling the term in mock fashion, plucking the *bilva* leaves and throwing them down. Often his water pot was knocked about either by his movements or the wind and its contents trickled down. Shiva happened to be resting under the tree and was propitiated. The moral is that acts of devotion, even if not meant to be so, are accepted by the Lord.

Zarthost-No-Diso—The anniversary day of Zoroaster's death. The Parsi Prophet died a martyr's death, at the age of 77, while at prayer in a fire temple, at the hand of Turbratur. On this solemn occasion of mourning, discourses on the life and teachings of the Prophet form the most important feature.

INDIANS OVERSEAS

THE total Indian (includes Pakistani before 1948) population overseas, according to the latest available estimates, is as follows:—

Name of country	Indian population	Date of estimates
Commonwealth.		
Australia	2,480	..
Canada	1,465	1941
New Zealand	1,116	1946
South Africa	282,407	1947
Southern Rhodesia	3,090	1946
Ceylon	732,258	1946
British Malaya and Singapore	604,508	1947
Hongkong	1,900	1946
Mauritius	271,636	1946
Seychelles	285	1947
Gibraltar	41	1946
Nigeria	375	1947
Kenya	90,900	1948
Uganda	33,900	1948
Nyasaland	3,100	1946
Zanzibar and Pemba	16,000	1946
Tanganyika	44,218	1948
Jamaica	22,821	1947
Trinidad and Tobago	214,177	1948
British Guiana	180,129	1948
Fiji Islands	133,941	1949
Northern Rhodesia	1,484	1947
British North Borneo	1,298	1931
Aden	9,456	1946
Sarawak	2,300	1940
Brunei	436	1947
Gold Coast	197	1948
British Somaliland	250	1946
Malta	37	1948
Grenada	5,000	1932
St. Lucia	2,643	1950
British Honduras	1,366	1946
Sierra Leone	76	1948
United Kingdom	7,128	1932*
Leeward Islands	99	1949
St. Vincent	1818	1950
Barbados	100	1950
St. Kitts	97	1950
Dominica	5	1950
Total for Commonwealth	2,674,447	
Foreign Countries		
Burma	1,017,825	1931
Indonesian Republic	27,638	1930
Siam	5,000 (approximately)	1931
Indo-China	1,310	1949
Japan	170	1949
Bahrein	1,138	1948
Iraq	650	1948
Muscat	1,145	1948
Portuguese East Africa	5,000	1931
Madagascar	9,955	1950
Reunion	2,200	1950
United States of America	2,405	1947
Brazil	21	1948
Panama	500	1948
Fr. establishments in India	323,295	1939
Afghanistan	240	1948
Iran	2,748	1948
Ethiopia	500	1949
Dutch Guiana	56,000	1948
Philippines	1,258	1948
Lebanon	49	1948
Syria	32	1948
Kuwait	1,250	1948
Saudi Arabia	2,400	1948
Palestine	56	1947
Germany and Austria	86	1949
Italy	90	1949
Europe	1,000 (approximately)	..
Belgian Congo	2,000	1949
Belgium	50	1949
Ruanda Urundi	866	1948
Italian Somaliland	1,000	1947
Nepal	10,441	1941
Total for foreign countries	1,478,318	
Total for all countries	4,153,315	

* The last authoritative census were taken in 1932. According to an estimate made in 1947 the figure lies between 5,000 and 6,000.

ORIGIN

Emigration of Indians for purposes of labour dates from the beginning of the 19th century.

From 1800 A.D. onwards Indians crossed the Bay to the Straits Settlements to work on the sugar, spice, tapioca and cocoanut plantations of Penang, and this intercourse was allowed to continue for long without regulation. The first officially recorded instance of genuine recruitment for labour emigration occurred in 1830, when a French merchant, named Joseph Argand, carried some 150 artisans to Bourbon. The abolition of slavery in British colonies in 1834 gave the first great impetus to the movement. The sugar planters of Mauritius at once turned to India as their best recruiting ground, and between 1834 and 1837 obtained at least 7,000 recruits from Calcutta.

The Government of India at a very early stage realised the necessity of bringing such emigration under regulation. The Law Commission was asked to investigate the case and to make recommendations for securing the well-being of emigrants. They advised that no legislation was required except in order to prevent undue advantage being taken of the simplicity and ignorance of emigrants by providing that a magistrate should satisfy himself that all contracts were entered into freely and understood by them and in order to secure that sufficient provision was made for their accommodation and sustenance during the voyage. A copy of every engagement was also to be transmitted to the Government under which the emigrants were to live. These recommendations were embodied in the first Emigration Act (V of 1837), which also provided that contracts should be determinable after 5 years.

The labour laws of the several Colonies provide for the protection and welfare of resident Indian labourers. The Government of India also occasionally depute to the Colonies their officers to report on the condition of Indian labourers.

Act VII of 1922 prohibited indentured emigration and all unskilled emigration, except to countries specially approved by the Legislature. Emigration to Ceylon and Malaya was brought under control, and the definition of "Emigrant" was extended to cover all persons "assisted" to depart from India.

Safeguards.—It was found that the lack of power to regulate the total flow of emigration for unskilled work, whether assisted or voluntary and whether under contract or not, may operate to the detriment of Indian communities overseas, particularly in times of economic depression. The Indian Emigration Act was suitably amended in 1938 and the Government of India took power to prohibit, when necessary, even unassisted emigration for the purpose of unskilled work. This amendment was promulgated on December 14, 1939.

The Indian Emigration Act, 1922, also contains certain provisions to safeguard the interests of persons emigrating for the purpose of skilled work. It was found that illicit emigration in some volume was taking place particularly in Bombay with the connivance of some dishonest passage brokers and rules were promulgated under the Act on the 14th Dec. 1939, providing for the licensing of passage brokers and requiring that a passage broker should not be a party to any arrangement to recover from the emigrant the 'cost of recruitment.'

During 1939-40 two minor defects in the Indian Emigration Act, 1922, were remedied. Now the Protectors of Emigrants can exercise the powers of detention, search, etc., for the prevention of offences under the Act and by making the offence under Section 30 of the Act cognizable removes an anomaly between Sections 25 and 30A of the Act.

Indian emigration questions have recently taken on a wider aspect. The issues round which public interest at present centres are three:—

(*a*) Control of emigration.

(*b*) Rights of Indians to admission to other parts of the Commonwealth.

(*c*) Rights and disabilities of Indians domiciled overseas.

So far as unskilled labour is concerned, the Government of India have assumed absolute power of control in accordance with powers conferred on them by the Emigration Act of 1922. The functions of the Government of India were previously performed by State Governments by virtue of powers delegated to them under Section 124 (1) of the Government of India Act, 1935. With a view to dealing directly with all emigration problems in the post-war period on a uniform all-India basis, the Government of India resumed the administration of those functions with effect from 1st October, 1944, and appointed a Controller General of Emigration in the Commonwealth Relations Department for that purpose.

A Controller of Emigration, Madras, has also been appointed to co-ordinate emigration control in Madras State.

AUSTRALIA, CANADA

The majority of Indians in Australia are engaged in retail trade or agricultural operations. The Commonwealth franchise was granted to Indians domiciled in Australia in 1925. The Constitution and Electoral Acts in Western Australia disqualify an aboriginal native of Australia, Asia or Africa from being registered as an elector for the Assembly; but he may be enrolled as a voter for the Legislative Council (which is the Upper House) in each province in which he holds freehold property of at least £50 capital value.

Indians in Australia still suffer from certain minor disabilities (administrative and legal) relating to Crown lands, mining, certain occupations and employment. Under the Mining Act of 1904, in Western Australia the grant of mining rights to Asians requires the approval of the Minister in charge of Mines. Under the South Australia Irrigation and Reclaimed Lands Act, 1914, Indians are not eligible to obtain leases of land. In Western Australia wherever licences are prescribed, for example, for cutting sandalwood, for employment under Government contractors and for employment in European factories, Indians find it difficult under the present administrative practice to get the authorities to exercise discretion in their favour.

Indians domiciled in New Zealand are generally not subject to any disability and enjoy equal citizenship rights including franchise with the other British subjects.

Indian residents of Canada are mostly farmers, gardeners, farm workers, managers of retail stores, hawkers, and unskilled labourers. With the passing of the Canadian Citizenship Bill of 1945 and the British Columbia Provincial Election Amendment Act of 1945 Indian residents enjoy all normal rights. On 25th January 1951 an Agreement was signed between India and Canada in Ottawa, providing for the admission into Canada, for permanent residence, of 150 citizens of India every year, beginning from January 1, 1951. The detailed procedure is now being worked out.

SOUTH AFRICA

In any discussion of the problem of Indians overseas South Africa takes a prominent place. The position upto 1927, that is to say, the time of the Cape Town Agreement may be summed up as follows:—

(*i*) 1885—All Asians in Transvaal were debarred from acquiring the rights of citizenship and from owning any property except in such areas as might be assigned to them.

(*ii*) 1896—Indians were deprived of parliamentary franchise in Natal.

(*iii*) 1907—In the Transvaal all Asians were required to register themselves.

(*iv*) 1908—Under the Gold Law Asians could not reside in or occupy any land in any district or proclaimed land except in a bazar, etc. or such place as the Mining Commissioner might permit.

(*v*) 1913—Under the Immigrants Regulation Act, 1913, Asians have been declared as prohibited immigrants on economics grounds. Asians were also prohibited from moving from one province to another.

(*vi*) 1919—Asia companies were prohibited from holding any fixed property.

(*vii*) 1924—Indians in Natal were deprived of municipal franchise.

(*viii*) 1926—The Colour Bar Act excluded Indians from certain classes of skilled workers to whom certificates of competency could be given.

In 1927 December a Conference was held between the Governments of India and the Union of South Africa to settle the Indian question once and for all if possible. An agreement emerged the terms of which are as follows:—

"Both Governments re-affirm their recognition of the right of South Africa to use all just and legitimate means for the maintenance of western standards of life.

"The Union Government recognises that Indians domiciled in the Union who are repared to conform to western standards of life, should be enabled to do so.

"For those Indians in the Union who may desire to avail themselves of it, the Union Government will organise a scheme of assisted migration to India or other countries where western standards are not required. Union domicile will be lost after 3 years' continuous absence from the Union in agreement with the proposed revision of the law relating to domicile which will be of general application. Emigrants under the assisted emigration scheme who desire to return to the Union within the 3 years will only be allowed to do so on refund to the Union Government of the cost of the assistance received by them.

"The Government of India recognise their obligation to look after such emigrants on their arrival in India.

"The admission into the Union of the wives and minor children of Indians permanently domiciled in the Union will be regulated by paragraph 3 of Resolution XXI of the Imperial Conference of 1918.

"In the expectation that the difficulties with which the Union has been confronted will be materially lessened by the agreement now happily reached between the two Governments, and in order that the agreement may come into operation under the most favourable auspices and have a fair trial, the Government of the Union of South Africa have decided not to proceed further with the Areas Reservation and Immigration and Registration (Further Provision) Bill.

"The two Governments have agreed to watch the working of the agreement now reached and to exchange views from time to time as to any changes that experience may suggest.

"The Government of the Union of South Africa have requested the Government of India to appoint an agent in order to secure continuous and effective co-operation between the two Governments."

The number of Indians who took advantage of the Assisted Emigaration Scheme was, however, below expectations.

But the fact of the agreement did not prevent the Union Government from enacting anti-Indian laws in the years 1932-1939. European agitation during this period also led to the appointment in 1938 of two Commissions the Murry Land Commission and Mixed Marriages Commission. (For details see earlier editions of the Year Book.)

Interim Act

Then in 1939 the Union Government passed the Asiatic (Transvaal Land and Trading) Act in spite of repeated representations from the local Indian community and the Government of India. The Act restricted three important rights of the Indian community in the Transvaal: (*a*) the right to occupy land not subject to Gold Law restrictions; (*b*) the right to trade anywhere in the Transvaal; and (*c*) the right of Indians holding trading licences in May 1919 to transfer their business premises in the same township. This Act was later superseded by the Asiatic Land Tenure Act of 1946, which was in its turn amended later but maintained in substance the same position as before.

The international situation in September, 1939, and the consequent change of Ministry in the Union with Field Marshal Smuts coming into power altered the position slightly so far as the Indian community was concerned. The Government appointed a Commission presided over by Mr. Justice F. N. Broome in 1940. The two main findings were that in the Transvaal the extent of penetration since 1927 did not appear to be alarming or even surprising and in Natal the extent of penetration into European areas was little more than a trickle.

Towards the end of 1942, the Durban City Council represented to the Minister of the Interior that since October 1940 Indian penetration in predominantly European areas in Durban had been taking place on an accelerated scale. As a result of this representation, Mr. Justice F. N. Broome was once again appointed to enquire and report.

As a result of his finding and in order to check further acquisition of property by Indians, the Union Government passed in the teeth of opposition by the Indian community and Government of India, an Act called "the Trading and Occupation of Land (Transvaal and Natal) Restriction Act, 1943," generally called as the Pegging Act. This Act provided for the continuance in the Transvaal of the provisions of the Asiatic (Transvaal Land and Trading) Act 1939 for a further period of 3 years and extended similar provisions prohibiting transfer of properties between Europeans and Indians in Natal for a period of 3 years, *i.e.*, up to March 31, 1946.

In 1944, as a result of an agreement, known as "Pretoria Agreement", between the Union Prime Minister and the Minister of the Interior on the one hand and a deputation from Natal including members of the Natal Indian Congress on the other, a decision was taken according to which the Pegging Act was to be replaced by an Ordinance to be passed by the Natal Provincial Council. The Ordinance was to provide for the creation of a licensing board with two Europeans and two Indian members and a third European with legal training as chairman. The Board was to control occupation of dwellings in Durban by licensing.

A draft Ordinance embodying major points of the Agreement was introduced in the Natal Provincial Council but when it finally emerged from the Provincial Council it departed from the Pretoria Agreement in many aspects.

In particular it restricted the right of Indians to acquire property. Two other Ordinances, *viz.*, Natal Housing Ordinance and Provincial and Local Authorities Expropriation Ordinance, were also passed in 1944. Indians in South Africa were greatly agitated over this legislation. It also aroused great resentment among the public in India.

The Government of India represented to the Union Government that the new measure was unwarranted and urged for its withdrawal and implementation of the Pretoria Agreement. As the representations met with failure, the Government of India enforced the Reciprocity Act against South Africa, and persons of South African domicile were declared prohibited immigrants in India.

The Residential Property Regulations Ordinance and the other two ordinances were eventually declared *ultra vires* of the powers of the Provincial Council and therefore did not become operative.

In 1944 the Union Government appointed a Commission "To enquire into and report upon matters affecting the Indian community of the Province of Natal, with special reference to housing and health needs, civic amenities.... and as to all matters affecting the well-being and advancement of the permanent Indian population of Natal."

The main and only important recommendation of this Commission was that the Union Government should invite the Government of India to send to the Union a delegation, composed substantially of Indians for the purpose of discussing with the Union Government, all matters affecting Indians in South Africa.

Land Tenure Act

One of the most important events in the history of Indians in South Africa was the passing of the Asiatic Land Tenure and Indian Representation Act in 1946 June.

The Act which replaced the Pegging Act of 1943, placed restrictions on the acquisition and occupation of land by Asians in Natal.

It also gave a limited franchise to all male Indians of or over 21 years of age with education and income or property qualifications.

Indians were to be represented by 2 European Senators, 3 European Members in the House of Assembly and 2 Members in the Natal Provincial Council.

Government of India's request for the postponement of this legislation and for a Round Table Conference to discuss the Indian question was rejected by the Union Government. Consequently they gave notice of the termination of Trade Agreement with the Union Government on the 25th March 1946 and banned all exports to and imports from South Africa with effect from the 17th July. The High Commissioner for India in Union was recalled. In South Africa itself Indians started a passive resistance movement which took the form of defying the Asiatic Land Tenure Act by occupying land in the non-exempted areas. In the movement which continued till May 1948 about 200 persons including women, Africans and Europeans courted imprisonment.

Question Before U. N. O.

The Government of India was also urged by the Indian legislature to raise the Indian question in South Africa before the United Nations as the Union Government's treatment of Indians was a violation of the United Nations Charter. The Government of India lodged a complaint with the Secretary General, United Nations, requesting that the General Assembly should take up this question under Articles 10 and 14 of the Charter.

The question was discussed at the 1946 (October-December) session of the General Assembly which referred it to the Joint Political and Legal Committees. The South Africa delegation, led by F. M. Smuts, contended that this question was essentially a domestic question of South Africa and therefore under Article 2(7) of the Charter UNO had no right to discuss the matter. They therefore wanted the whole question to be referred to the International Court of Justice for legal clarification on this point.

During the course of discussions South Africa's racial policy came in for much criticism. Various resolutions were proposed but the Committee passed the joint French-Mexican resolution, to which India had agreed.

The resolution after stating that because of the treatment of Indians in South Africa friendly relations between the two countries had been impaired, expressed the opinion of the General Assembly that such treatment "should be in conformity with the international obligations under the agreements concluded between the two Governments and the relevant provisions of the Charter". It requested the two Governments to report at the next session of the General Assembly the measures adopted to that effect. This resolution was passed by the General Assembly by 2/3rd majority.

When the General Assembly met in 1947 the two Governments submitted their reports. The question was referred to the Political Committee which passed the Indian resolution as amended by Mexico. The resolution after reaffirming the last year's resolution requested the two Governments to enter into discussions at a Round Table Conference on the basis of that resolution, inviting the Government of Pakistan to such a Conference. But the resolution failed to secure a two-thirds majority in the General Assembly and hence was not effective. In July 1948 the Government of India again requested the United Nations to consider the South African Indian question. The item was again included in the Agenda for the Third Session of General Assembly held in Paris in May 1949, when it passed a resolution inviting "the Governments of India, Pakistan and Union of South Africa to enter into discussion at a Round Table Conference, taking into consideration the purposes and principles of the Charter of the United Nations and the Declaration of Human Rights". Consequently the Government of India initiated correspondence which resulted in the three Governments holding preliminary talks on February 6, 1950, at Cape Town to consider the possibility of a Round Table Conference. The three Governments accepted the recommendations of their delegations to these talks that a Round Table Conference be convened to explore all possible ways and means of settling the Indian question in South Africa. Before the Conference could be held the Union Government introduced in their Parliament and enacted an Act called the Group Areas Act (see details below) which vitally affects the existence of the Indian Community in South Africa. The Government of India requested the Union Govt. not to proceed with the Group Areas Bill pending the holding of the Conference. The Union Government however did not accede to this request of the Government of India who therefore declined to participate in the proposed Conference and referred the matter to the U. N. General Assembly. The General Assembly thereupon adopted on December 2, 1950 a resolution, recommending that the Governments of India, Pakistan and Union of South Africa should meet at a Round Table Conference before April 1, 1951, and that if the Conference fails, a Commission of three members should be established to assist the three Governments in carrying through appropriate negotiations. The resolution further calls upon the Governments concerned to refrain from taking any steps which would prejudice the success of the negotiations, in particular the implementation or enforcement of the provision of 'The Group Areas Act,' pending the conclusion of such negotiations. The South African Government have now informed the Secretary-General of the United Nations that they are unable to accept the resolution since "the terms of the resolution constitute intervention in a matter which is essentially within the Union's domestic jurisdiction".

The party in power in South Africa today is the Nationalist Party. The policy of the Party may be described as follows: For Indians it suggested large-scale repatriation, repeal of Second Chapter of Asiatic Land Tenure and Indian Representation Act, segregation, curtailment of facilities to Indian trades outside their areas and prevention of penetration of Indians in Cape Colony

And so far the Party has actually taken the following measures affecting Indians:—

(*i*) The second Chapter of the Asiatic Land Tenure and Indian Representation Act giving 'representation' to Indians was repealed in October 1948.

(*ii*) Family allowances admissible in South Africa on the basis of income and the number of dependants have been stopped for Indians with effect from December 31, 1948.

(*iii*) An Act has been passed to prohibit marriages between Europeans and Non-Europeans.

(*iv*) The bonus under the Assisted Emigration scheme has been doubled to induce Indians to accept repatriation to India.

(*v*) Indian traders in Reserves whose leases have run out are being refused renewals.

(*vi*) All Indians not born in South Africa are being deported on conviction for certain types of offences.

(*vii*) Segregation is being introduced in railway stations, post offices and in Cape Town buses and Suburban Railways.

(*viii*) The Asiatic Land Tenure Amendment Act of 1949, introduces segregation for purposes of trade also.

(*ix*) *Group Areas Act.*—This was enacted in 1950 and provides for the division and control of all land in the Union for ownership and occupation by the different racial groups. For this purpose, the entire population has been divided into three main groups, *viz.*, White, Native and Coloured, Indians being included in the last mentioned group. The Government can establish by Proclamation "Group Areas" for exclusive occupation or ownership or both, of any of the groups. Fresh acquisition or ownership by disqualified persons of company in any group area is prohibited; disqualified companies holding property at the commencement of notification cannot retain ownership after ten years. All the property in a group area held at the commencement of the notification by a disqualified individual will, after his death, have to be sold to a member of the group for which the area is set apart. No disqualified person can occupy land or premises in a group area without permit after one year of notification. No differentiation is made in the Act between occupation for residence and occupation for trade. The Act has roused consternation among the Indian community in South Africa who consider that the Act is mainly designed to liquidate them. The Act has been put into operation by a proclamation on March 30, 1951.

EAST AFRICA

British East Africa includes Kenya, Uganda, Tanganyika and Zanzibar. Since 1948 January the first three are included in a sort of loose union designated East Africa High Commission with a common legislature and a common administrative service for certain specific purposes.

Indians in East Africa are mostly concentrated in urban centres. They are mainly engaged in 'Manufacture' and 'Commerce and Finance'. Their general economic condition, unlike in other British Colonies, is on the whole satisfactory. In Kenya and Tanganyika they constitute about 60 per cent of the total non-Native population of each Colony; in Uganda they constitute the single largest community among the non-Africans, being 75 per cent of the non-African population.

The questions affecting Indians in East Africa are much the same kind as those affecting them in South Africa and elsewhere, *viz.*, franchise, segregation, right to own land, and laws of immigration.

In the legislature of the East Africa High Commission, the Europeans, the Indians and the Africans were to have equality with 6 members for each group, according to the original proposals of December 1945. Because of strong opposition from the Europeans these proposals were later modified so that today instead of equality for

race groups there is equality for territories with 5 members each for Kenya, Uganda and Tanganyika. In the legislature of Kenya Colony Europeans have 11 seats, Indians 5, Arabs 2, and there are 4 nominated Africans. The representation of Indians is partly based on communal grounds. Two of the 5 Indian seats are reserved for Muslims in two double member constituencies each voter having one vote only.

In Tanganyika and Uganda there is no electoral representation. In the Tanganyika Legislative Council out of 14 unofficial nominated members there are 3 Asians, and in Uganda Legislative Council out of 16 unofficial members 4 are Asians.

So far as allotment of land is concerned, broadly speaking, there is reservation of land for Europeans in the highlands, and for Indians in the lowlands, with regulations against alienation. Transactions in land are subject to two measures, the Land Control Ordinance, 1944 and the Crown Lands Amendment Ordinance 1944. There is a Land Control Board which has absolute control over all transactions in land in the highlands. The Governor has the power of veto by which he can disallow inter-racial transfers of shares in a landowning company as is done in the case of inter-racial transfers of land. Indian opinion is strongly opposed to the two Ordinances mentioned above.

Immigration is governed by Ordinances passed by the East Africa Legislature in 1948 as amended subsequently. The legislation specifies the kind of immigrant who is prohibited, and the class of person who can apply for Entry Permit or pass for entry. An immigrant intending to engage in agriculture, mining, trade has not only to have such sums of money as may be prescribed but he has to satisfy the authorities that such engagement in trade, etc., will not be to the prejudice of the inhabitants generally.

In Southern Rhodesia notice of all new townships proposed to be established has to be given under the provisions of the 'Town & Country Planning Act, 1945', which contain a clause forbidding occupation and ownership of any stands therein by persons other than those of European descent. None who is not a European can live in those townships except in the course of the discharge of his duties as a domestic servant.

FIJI

Indians have played an important part in the development of economic resources of the Fiji Islands in the Pacific. As estimated in 1949 the Indian population in this island was 133,941, *i.e.*, 47 per cent of the whole population. Indian residents here are the descendants of the indentured immigrants from India who started coming into the Colony is 1879. The economy of the Colony is based on agriculture and the sugar-cane production is mainly in the hands of Indians. Relations between Indians and Fijians are most friendly. Colour bar does not exist and Indians suffer from no 'political disabilities'. Literacy among Indians is confined to a small proportion of the population. On the whole the general economic position of Indians is not as good as it might be.

The Legislative Council consists of 31 members, with 16 official and 15 non-officials. In the non-official group Europeans, Indians and Fijians have equal representation with 5 members for each group. Of the 5 Indian members 3 are elected on a communal franchise and 2 are nominated. One Indian nominated member was appointed member of the Executive Council in 1950.

The most important problem affecting the Indian community in Fiji is that of land tenure. A very large majority of the Indian population consists of agriculturist, but alienation of native-owned land is prohibited. More than 80 per cent of the land in the Colony is held by native owners as tribal land, and the rest is held as Crown grants or as freehold property mainly by the Colonial Sugar Refining Company, Ltd. Indians hold land as lessees from the native owners for the cultivation of rice, sugar-cane, etc., and from the Colonial Sugar Refining Co., for cultivation of sugar-cane.

Practically the whole problem is one of security of tenure and the encouragement given to Fijians to cultivate their own lands with the most stable and profitable crop, sugar-cane. The problem arose in this way.

In September, 1936, the Council of Chiefs of Fiji agreed that all lands (including leases) not required for the maintenance of the Fijian owners should be opened for settlement; that to further this end a Committee should be appointed to inquire into and to determine the amount of land needed for proper development by the Native owners; and that all land (including leases) not so required should be handed over to the Government to lease on behalf of the Fijians.

As a result of the examination of the question the Colonial Government came to the conclusion that the most satisfactory method of procedure would be for Government to take power to deal with *all* the native lands in the Colony, and then to appoint a Commission to determine the lands to be set aside for the exclusive use of the Fijians. A Commission has also reported on what lands are to be incorporated into Native Reserves. Where such lands are in Indian occupation, alternate lands are to be offered to the existing lessees. But the Commission has not recommended any compensation for improvements made in the land by Indians, and evicted lessees will be given only virgin land. It is feared that this will result in the displacement of some thousands of Indian agriculturists. The Governor in his speech at the budget-session in December 1949 reassured the Indian farmers that there was no cause for apprehension and that the Indians whose leases were not renewed would be helped to settle on land elsewhere.

The Indian cultivators have also had trouble with the Sugar Refining Company. In view of the rising cost of living due to war, the sugar-cane farmers in Fiji, who are mostly Indians, demanded, in June, 1943, a higher price for their cane. The Sugar Refining Company, which has the monopoly of sugar production in the Colony, refused any increase in the price of cane unless the price of sugar was increased by the Ministry of Food, United Kingdom, to whom the Company was bound to sell all its produce. The farmers thereupon decided not to harvest their crop. They stuck to their decision in spite of appeals made by the Governor of the Colony. As the crushing season advanced, the feelings among the Indians ran high. Some of them even ploughed in their crops. All attempts on the part of Indian leaders to reach a settlement having failed the major part of the cane crop in the Colony remained unharvested.

The Secretary of State for Colonies sent an expert C. Y. Shepherd to report on the situation. The report which Mr. Shepherd made is strongly criticized by Indian leaders. The whole question has assumed great importance as the time for renewal of contract between the cane-growers and the Company is drawing near.

A third problem which Indians in Fiji are facing is the residential tax. According to the Fiji Residential Tax Ordinance of 1923, all male persons between the ages of 18 and 60 other than Fijians and Rotuman residents in the Colony were liable to pay a tax not exceeding £1 per annum per person. The tax was imposed with the object of raising additional revenue for effecting improvements in the Colony.

During the last war a further tax of 10sh. per head per annum was imposed. An assurance was however, given by the Government of Fiji at the time that this additional war tax would be lifted as soon as the war ended. The promise was kept but simultaneously with the lifting of the war tax, the Residential Tax was increased from £1 to £2 per head. Those who pay income-tax are exempted from the tax, with the result that almost the entire European population is exempt from the tax, as a majority of them pay income-tax. In actual practice therefore the incidence of the tax has mainly fallen on the Indians whose economic condition has not shown improvement proportionate to the increase in the tax now demanded.

BRITISH GUIANA AND WEST INDIES

Indian emigration under 'indenture' system to British Guiana began in 1838. Today Indians constitute more than 40 per cent of the total population of the country. British Guiana is an agricultural country and about 30 per cent of Indians work in the sugar industry. Next to sugar, the rice industry employs a large number of Indian labourers. Indians have penetrated into all walks of life. A vast majority of them is illiterate. On the whole their general economic condition is not quite satisfactory.

Emigration of Indian labour to Trinidad began in 1845 and today Indians form about 35 per cent of the total population. A large number of them own small farms producing sugar-cane, cocoa and rice. Their general economic condition is about the same as in British Guiana.

As Indians in British Guiana and West Indies are mostly labourers on sugar estates, whatever grievances they have are of an economic nature. Nothing much was heard of them till 1935 when there was widespread trouble on sugar estates. The abolition of the indentured system though it marked an advance in their status actually deprived them of the safeguards that accrued from the Immigration Ordinance in regard to pay, hours of work, etc.

In 1942, a Labour Ordinance (No. 2 of 1942) was passed. This Ordinance provided for the appointment of a Commissioner of Labour for the regulation of the relations between employers and employees and for the settlement of disputes between them. This brought the labour laws of British Guiana in line with modern conceptions of labour legislation. The Government of India were given an opportunity to comment on the Ordinance at the Bill stage and certain modifications suggested by them were incorporated in it.

In 1945 a Royal Commission made a series of recommendations about the Colonies. Among others the Commission recommended that the possibility of the appointment of suitable East Indians to posts in the Government service should be carefully borne in mind by Colonial Governments. They expressed sympathy with the complaints regarding the arrangements for legitimisation and validation of East Indian marriages and recommended that these marriages should so far as the law was concerned be put on exactly the same footing as other marriages.

In effect the commission conceded practically all the demands to which Indians themselves attached importance. The general recommendations which related to matters of education, housing and labour administration appeared satisfactory and were likely to be of benefit to Indians.

In June 1948 Indian workers on sugar estates in British Guiana resorted to a strike owing to dissatisfaction with wages and conditions of work. The incident led to firing by the police in which five Indians were killed. The U.K. Government appointed a Royal Commission of Enquiry to investigate the whole problem of the sugar industry in British Guiana. This Commission in its report to the British Government recommended amenities such as housing, education and pensions, etc. to workers and mechanisation of the industry. Some of the recommendations are being carried out by the Colonial Government.

The British Guiana Legislative Council consists of 24 members out of whom 14 are elected, 7 unofficial nominated and 3 ex-officio. There are four Indian members, three of whom are elected and one nominated.

In Trinidad out of 18 elected members of the Legislative Council 7 are Indians. One Indian is in the Executive Council.

In Jamaica where Indians form only 1·7 per cent of the total population there is only one Indian member in the Lower House comprising 32 elected members.

CEYLON

Most Indians in Ceylon are workers on tea and rubber estates. Certain questions like wages affecting them were fixed by an agreement arrived at 1927. Because of depression in the two industries the wages were reduced in 1932 and again in 1933. Till about 1937 there was no fresh recruitment of labour. In 1937 there was an insistent demand for labour as general trade conditions improved. While permitting recruitment of Indian labour the Government of India tried to secure higher wages and village Committee franchise for Indians. In 1938 the Commission to investigate non-Ceylonese labour particularly with a view to control of immigration made a report. There has been a ban on emigration of Indian unskilled labourers to Ceylon since 1939. Exemption is made in deserving cases.

The rights of Indians to citizenship are governed by two Acts enacted in 1948 after a discussion between the Indian and Ceylonese Prime Ministers. These Acts are the Ceylon Citizenship Act and the Indian and Pakistani Residents (Citizenship) Act, which provide that the Indian residents in Ceylon would be entitled to obtain the citizenship of Ceylon by registration subject to the following conditions (*a*) an applicant must have a specified minimum period of uninterrupted residence in Ceylon, (*b*) he must have an adequate means of livelihood, and (*c*) he should be in a position to comply with the laws and customs of Ceylon. The procedure prescribed for the admission of Indian residents to the Ceylon citizenship is rather complicated, a fact that has created bitterness among the Indian community in Ceylon.

The Ceylon Government are also adopting a policy of Ceylonisation in trade and employment. Consequently Indians who have not acquired Ceylon Citizenship find it difficult to get employment there.

Other Acts which affect the rights of Indians are the Immigrants and Emigrants Acts of 1948 and the Ceylon Exchange Control Regulations. The former greatly restricts the rights of Indians to re-enter Ceylon, while the Ceylon Exchange Control regulations prohibit Indians from remitting to India amounts exceeding Rs. 25 p.m. in the case of Indians other than estate labourers and Rs. 60 per quarter per household in the case of estate labourers. Both these laws have created a certain amount of resentment among Indians.

An Indian who was disfranchised according to certain provisions of the Electoral Amendment Act of 1949 took his case to Court and won it. It was gathered that Government was appealing.

MALAYA

Malaya is divided into two administrative units, the Federation of Malaya and the Colony of Singapore.

The Federation of Malaya is under a High Commissioner assisted by a Federal Executive Council. There is a Legislative Council with 75 seats of which 50 are allotted to non-official members. One Indian has been nominated to the Executive Council and 4 Indians nominated to the Legislative Council. The Colony of Singapore is under a Governor. Out of a total of 22 members in the Singapore Legislative Council 4 are Indians, three of them elected and one nominated.

Soon after the collapse of Japan in 1945 the Indians found themselves faced with three problems for the solution of which the intervention of the Government of India was required, relief of the needy because of currency difficulties, the repatriation of Indians who wanted to return to India, and legal and political aid to those Indians who were accused of collaboration with the Japanese. The Government of India met the three problems with the help of various non-official bodies in India. Funds were made available to the needy and destitute, medical missions were sent and shipping space was found for those who wanted repatriation by the special chartering of a ship. For those accused of political crimes legal help was given, while many who were charged with mere collaboration were set free on the representation of the Government of India. (For details see 1949 edition.)

A great number of Indians work as labourers in the rubber and tin estates of Malaya. Owing to the steep rise in the cost of living (400 to 500 per cent) there is hardship. Rates of pay which are standardized were roughly as follows (1946):

> "for adult male 90 cents plus 55 cents dearness allowance, for adult woman 55 cents plus 40 cents dearness allowance, for child 40 cents plus 20 cents dearness allowance."

Shortage of rice was another factor that was causing great dissatisfaction. Strikes broke out as a result of all this discontent in the estates in Perak, Selangor, Malacca and Johore States. Some of these strikes were amicably settled by the intervention of the Representative of the Government of India, though wages continued to remain at a low level on account of a slump in the rubber market. Later when trouble of a political nature broke out in violence against the British Government in Malaya, Indians were inevitably caught up in it. A number of Indians were arrested and sentenced on charges of taking part in the insurgent movement or of helping the insurgents.

Lately legislation has been passed which hampers the Indian representative in his welfare work for Indian labourers. He no longer enjoys the privilege of inspecting work places, etc., where Indian labourers are employed and of enquiring into their conditions. The Government of India made a protest against the withdrawal of a right long enjoyed by their Agent.

BURMA

Three questions that have confronted Indians in Burma recently are evacuation from localities involved in the civil war, the nationalization of land and the consequent payment of compensation, and the dismissal of Indian employees from Burma Government service.

The first battle-area to be evacuated was Insein when the town was burned down in the course of fighting between Government troops and the Karens which started in 1949 February. The Indian Embassy arranged a truce during which 4,000 Indians were evacuated to Rangoon. Later Indian nationals were also evacuated from Bassein, Toungoo and Taunggyi under difficult conditions. Relief was organized and later accommodation arranged for all who wanted to return to India.

Soon after the inauguration of the Burmese Republic on 4th January, 1948, the Government of Burma commenced serving notices of discharge on Indian employees who were either not eligible to become Burma citizens or unwilling to elect Burmese nationality. The Government of India have felt a special responsibility towards such employees of the Government of Burma as were in that Government's service while Burma was still a part of India and have sought (*a*) to secure adequate benefits for discharged personnel in the shape of leave, salary, pensions and (*b*) find alternative employment for them in India. The possibilities of (*b*) have been inevitably circumscribed by the obligations of relief towards refugees who have come to this country as a result of the partition of India.

Land Nationalisation

Certain measures of agrarian reform introduced by the Government of Burma during December 1947 and in the beginning of 1948 indicated that they had decided upon a policy of complete nationalisation of agricultural lands in Burma. The representatives of Indian interests in Burma considered that they could not take objection to the policy of nationalisation as such, provided adequate compensation for lands was paid to the land owners. Early in September 1948, the Government of Burma published their Land Nationalisation Bill, which *inter alia* fixed the maximum compensation at twelve times the land revenue. Provision was also made in the Bill for the appointment of a Land Commission to determine the basis of compensation. Representations were thereupon made to the Government of Burma, pointing out the inadequacy of the compensation proposed and suggesting that a multiple of 25 times the land revenue on a uniform basis should be adopted and adequate representation should be given to Indians on the Land Commission as well as on the Land Committees which would be responsible for the distribution of the resumed lands. The Government of Burma, however, passed the Bill on 11th October 1948, without any substantial modifications.

The ten man Land Commission provided under the Act, was appointed in August 1949. The Government of India then requested the Government of Burma to discuss the whole question with a delegation from India before the Commission took any decisions regarding the method of determining compensation for lands to be nationalised. The Government of Burma agreed. A delegation was sent by the Government of India to Burma in June 1950. It had discussions with the representatives of the Government of Burma who promised to convey the proposals of the Government of India to their Government. No settlement has been arrived at so far.

A number of other measures affecting Indian interests are reviewed below:

The Lands Disputes (Summary Jurisdiction) Act, 1945.—The Act provided for a summary decision, by specially appointed "Commissioners" in disputes as to possession and boundaries of immovable properties without going into the question of ultimate right or title to the property. The Act aimed at determining who was the last person in lawful possession of a particular immovable property during the short period between the dates when the British Administration began to disintegrate and finally ceased to function and left questions relating to periods prior to that or later to the decisions of competent civil courts.

The Accrual of Interest (Wartime Investment) Act, 1947.—Under this Act debts, loans and mortgages made in Burma before 5th May 1942, did not bear any interest during the period of suspension of limitation. This measure was found necessary to prevent mounting of interest on debts, loans and mortgages for the period for which suits were not filed on account of suspension of limitation.

The Agricultural Debts Moratorium Act, 1947.—This Act debarred creditors who had any debts to realise from agriculturists or had decrees of civil courts against them, from taking any legal action in enforcing their claims. They were further required to register within 6 months from taking any legal action in enforcing their claims and to register within 6 months from 7th May 1947, certain particulars in respect of their claims with the Deputy Commissioners of the Districts in which the debtors resided. The Act further provided that claims not registered with the local authorities within the specified period would not be entertained by the civil courts and thus be extinguished. The Government of India gave wide publicity to this provision of the Act for the benefit of evacuees from Burma.

The Burma Union Citizenship (Election) Act, 1948.—Passed in April 1948, provides for the conferment of citizenship on a person who was born in any of the territories which at the time of his birth was included within His Britannic Majesty's Dominions and who has resided in any of the territories included within the Union of Burma for a period of not less than eight years immediately preceding the 4th January 1948, or immediately preceding the 1st January 1942, and who intends to reside permanently therein and submits his application in accordance with the procedure laid down. The Government of Burma have also enacted

a Burma Foreigners Registration Act, whereby all persons, who were not citizens of Burma on the 4th January 1949, are required to register as aliens. There are nearly 6 to 7 lakhs of Indians in Burma.

Emigration of unskilled Indian labour to Burma was prohibited under a ban imposed under the Indian Emigration Act, 1922, in July, 1941.

No person can now enter Burma without a valid passport duly visaed or endorsed.

MAURITIUS

Mauritius in the Indian Ocean was the first British Colony to receive indentured labour from India in 1834. Nearly 63 per cent of the total population in the Colony is Indian. Agriculture form the main occupation of the people of the Colony and the principal products of the place are sugar and copra. A large proportion of the Indians are farm-labourers on the sugar plantations. In 'Commerce' their importance is second only to that of the Chinese. Indians are mostly illiterate. On the whole the general economic and social condition of Indians is extremely unsatisfactory. There is no colour bar against them.

Indians do not suffer from any political disability either. The new political constitution of the Colony consists of a Governor, an Executive Council of 3 ex-officio and 4 members chosen by the Legislative Council amongst its members and a Legislative Council of 3 ex-officio members, 12 nominated and 19 elected members. There is one Indian nominated member of the Legislative Council, who is also a member of the Executive Council and 11 Indian elected members of the Legislative Council, of which one is also a member of the Executive Council.

The condition of Indians in this Colony continued to remain satisfactory till 1937, when there were labour disturbances on certain sugar estates employing Indian labour. The Colonial Government appointed a Commission to enquire into and report on the disturbances. The commission reported during 1938 and the most important recommendations of the Commission related to the necessity for the formation of a Department of Labour and the enactment of suitable labour legislation in place of the Labour Ordinance of 1922 which mainly dealt with indentured labour.

Both recommendations were given effect to and the Labour Ordinance of 1938 which closely follows the Malayan Labour Code should prove of considerable benefit to the Indian labourers. The Industrial Associations Ordinance of 1938 provided for the regulation of conditions of employment, the establishment of machinery for the peaceful settlement of disputes and generally the formation of industrial Association. This Ordinance, it will be observed, provides for collective bargaining by industrial labourers.

In 1940 May, Mr. S. Ridley, then Secretary to the Agent General for India in the Union of South Africa, was deputed to visit Mauritius and make a report.

In his report, which was published at the end of 1943, he made a number of recommendations, the more important of which were (1) minimum wage for labourers in the sugar industry, (2) grant of war bonus, (3) Government control over housing of labourers of estates, (4) introduction of compulsory education in suitable stages, (5) extension of franchise by adding educational qualification as an alternative to property qualification, and (6) adequate representation of the Indian community in the Council of Government and the Executive Council, etc., etc.

Disturbances on Estates.—In 1943 disturbances occurred on 4 estates pending settlement of a demand for higher wages. The police were reported to have been assaulted and in the course of firing which followed 3 persons were killed and 3 wounded. A Commission of enquiry was appointed to investigate the cause of the outbreak and the Conciliation and Wages Boards examined the question of adjustment of wages. The report of the Commission was published in November, 1944.

The Commission observed that the main underlying causes of the disturbances were unsatisfactory economic conditions and low wages. It made far-reaching recommendations for the improvement of labour conditions, general welfare and health services and the general administrative machinery. The Government of Mauritius have taken action on certain recommendations in regard to the improvement of labour conditions and have set up a Central Statistical Bureau.

EDUCATION

SINCE August 15, Education at the Centre has been constituted into a separate Ministry of Education, the present Minister for Education being Maulana Abul Kalam Azad. The State Governments are fully autonomous in regard to educational matters except in respect of educational development programme for which they receive grants-in-aid from the Central Government. Such programme has to be approved by the Central Government who have to examine whether it is in accord with the All-India approved educational policy.

The Central Ministry of Education consists of an Educational Adviser-cum-Secretary, a Joint Educational Adviser and *ex-officio* Joint Secretary, a Joint Educational Adviser and four Deputy Educational Advisers who are in charge of the different Divisions in the Ministry. There are also two Deputy Educational Advisers who are in charge of Educational work in London and Washington respectively. The names of the chief men in the Central Ministry of Education are given below :—

Educational Adviser-cum-Secretary, Dr. Tara Chand, M.A., D.Phil. (Oxon.).

Joint Educational Adviser and ex-officio Joint-Secretary, Humayun Kabir, M.A. (Oxon.), M.A. (Cal.).

Joint Educational Adviser, K. G. Saiyidain, M. Ed. (Leeds) (*Head of the Bureau and Development Division*).

Deputy Educational Advisers, M. S. Sundaram, M.A., B.Litt. (Oxon.) (*Educational Secretary, Embassy, Washington*). Ashfaque Husain, B.A. (Oxon.), Bar-at-Law (*Deputy Secretary and Head, General Education Division*).

Deputy Educational Adviser and Deputy Secretary, P. N. Kirpal, M.A., LL.B., B.A. (Oxon.) (*Head of the Administrative and External Relations Division*).

Deputy Educational Adviser, L. R. Sethi, M.A. (Punjab) & (Toronto) (*Secretary, Education Department, High Commissioner's Office, London*).

Deputy Educational Adviser, Dr. A. M. D. Rozario, M.Sc., Ph.D. (*Head of the Scholarships Division*).

Deputy Educational Adviser, G. K. Chandiramani, B.E. (*Head of the Technical Division*).

STATE ORGANISATION

In the States also, the subject 'Education' is under the control of a Minister. The Secretary, Department of Education is the permanent head of the Department and the Director of Public Instruction (in some states he is called the Director of Education) acts as an expert Adviser to the Minister in charge of Education. The Director controls the inspecting staff and the teaching staff of the Government institutions. A list of the State Ministers of Education with their Directors of Public Instruction is given below.

In the Centrally Administered Areas, Delhi and Ajmer, have each a Director of Education. Coorg has an Educational Officer. These Officers perform the functions of Directors of Public Instruction in the State.

The authority of Government in controlling the system of public instruction is in part shared with and in part delegated to Universities, and Boards of Secondary and Intermediate Education as regards secondary education and to local bodies as regards elementary education.

Certain forms of Technical Education are under the technical departments concerned and come within the purview of the Minister in Charge of those Departments.

Madhya Pradesh has a High School Board and Madras has an S.S.L.C. Board for control over secondary education, while U.P. (for the whole State except the areas under the jurisdiction of Benares Hindu and Aligarh Muslim Universities) had and still has Intermediate and Secondary Education Boards which control high school and intermediate education in the areas under their control. Delhi has a Board of Higher Secondary Education. The Rajasthan (including Ajmer-Merwara), central India and Gwalior High School and Intermediate Board has jurisdiction over schools and Intermediate Colleges in Ajmer-Merwara and central India besides some institutions in Rajasthan and certain other States.

Institutions under private management are controlled by Government and by local bodies by "recognition" and by the payment of grants-in-aid, with the assistance of the inspecting staffs employed by Government and by local bodies.

ASSAM

Education Minister.—The Hon'ble Omeo Kumar Dass.

Secretary.—A. N. Kidwai, I.C.S.

D.P.I.—U. K. Goswami, M.A., B.L.

WEST BENGAL

Education Minister.—The Hon'ble H. N. Chaudhury.

Secretary.—Dr. D. M. Sen, M.A., Ph.D. (Lond.).

D.P.I.—Dr. Parimal Roy, M.A., Ph.D. (Lond.).

BIHAR

Education Minister.—The Hon'ble Acharya Badri Nath Verma.

Secretary.—Jagdish Chandra Mathur, M.A., I.C.S.

D.P.I.—G. N. Sinha, M.A. (Pat.), B.A. (Cantab.).

BOMBAY

Education Minister.—The Hon'ble B. G. Kher, M.A., LL.B.

Secretary.—V. N. Sardesai, I.C.S.

D.P.I.—D. C. Pavate, M.A. (Cantab.).

MADHYA PRADESH

Education Minister.—The Hon'ble P. K. Deshmukh, M.A., LL.B.

Secretary.—Dr. V. S. Jha, M.A., Ph.D.

D.P.I.—E. W. Franklin, M.A. B.T. T.D. (Lond.).

MADRAS

Education Minister.—The Hon'ble K. Madhava Menon, B.A., B.L.

Secretary.—K. M. Unithan, I.C.S.

D.P.I.—D. S. Reddi, M.A. (Oxon.).

ORISSA

Education Minister.—The Hon'ble Pandit Lingaraj Misra, M.A.

Secretary.—P. K. Tripathy, M.A., I.C.S.

D.P.I.—M. C. Pradhan, M.A., B.L., Dip. in Edn.

PUNJAB

Secretary.—Dr. K. C. Khana, M.A., Ph.D. (Lond.).

D.P.I.—Dr. K. C. Khanna, M.A., Ph.D. (Lond.).

UTTAR PRADESH

Education Minister.—The Hon'ble Sampurnanand.

Secretary.—A. N. Sapru, B.A., I.C.S.

Director of Education.—I. R. Khan, M.A., Ph.D. (Lond.).

In India there are six Boards of Intermediate and/or Secondary Education, and 28 Universities. The names of the Universities and of their Vice-Chancellors are given below :—

1. *Agra University.*—C. Mahajan, M.A.
2. *Aligarh Muslim University.*—Dr. Zakir Husain, M.A., Ph.D.
3. *Allahabad University.*—Dr. D. R. Bhattacharya, M.Sc., Ph.D., D.Sc.
4. *Andhra University.*—V. S. Krishna, M.A. (Oxon.), Ph.D. (Vienna).
5. *Annamalai University.*—Dr. S. C. Manavalaramanujam, M.A., Ph.D. (Lond.), D.I.C.
6. *Benaras Hindu University.*—Pt. Govind Malviya, M.A., LL.B.
7. *Bombay University.*—Justice N. M. Bhagwati, M.A., LL.B.
8. *Calcutta Universty.*—Justice Sambhu Nath Banerjee, M.Sc., LL.B.
9. *Delhi University.*—Dr. S. N. Sen, M.A., Ph.D.
10. *Lucknow University.*—Acharya Narendra Deva, M.A., LL.B.
11. *Madras University.*—Lt.-Col. Diwan Bahadur Sir A. Lakshmanaswami Mudaliar, M.D., LL.D., D.Sc., F.R.C.O.G.
12. *Mysore University.*—Dr. B. L. Manjunath, B.A., M.Sc. (Lond.), D. Phil. (Oxon.).
13. *Nagpur University.*—Lt.-Col. Pandit K. L. Dubey, B.A., LL.B.
14. *Osmania University.*—Nawab Ali Yawar Jung Bahadur, B.A. (Oxon.).
15. *Patna University.*—Sarangdhar Sinha, M.A., B.L.
16. *Travancore University.*—V. K. N. Menon.
17. *Utkal University.*—C. M. Acharyya, M.A., B.L.
18. *Sagar University.*—Dr. R. Tripathi, M.A., D.Sc. (Lond.).
19. *Rajputana University.*—Dr. G. S. Mahajani, M.A., Ph.D.
20. *Punjab University.*—Dewan Anand Kumar, M.Sc., Bar-at-Law.
21. *Gauhati University.*—K. K. Handiqui, M.A. (Calcutta & Oxon.).
22. *Poona University.*—Dr. M. R. Jaykar, P.C., D.C.L., LL.D.
23. *Roorkee University.*—C. A. Hart, M.Sc., (Eng.), Lond., D.M.I.C.E., R.I.C.D.
24. *Jammu & Kashmir University.*—Hon'ble Mr. Justice Kayi Masud Hasan, B.A., LL.B.
25. *Baroda University.*—Mrs. Hansa Ben Mehta, M.L.C.
26. *Gujarat University.*—W. B. Divatia.
27. *Karnatak University.*—R. V. Jagirdar, M.A.
28. *N.D.T. Indian Women's University.*—Lady Premila Thackersay.

THE NEW OUTLOOK

The whole structure of education in India is being remodelled. Old Primary Schools, which in some States comprised of four classes, in others of five and six, in still others of seven or eight are giving place to Junior and Senior Basic Schools; High Schools will be reorganised into Higher Secondary Schools to include the 1st Year of Intermediate Education, leading up to three-year degree course. The whole question of university education has been gone into by the Radhakrishnan commission. Technical Education is receiving increased attention and a definite vocational bias is being given to education in Basic Schools.

The new policy is based on a resolution passed by the Central Advisory Board of Education at a meeting held in December 1935. The resolution is worth quoting.

(1) The Board is of opinion that a radical readjustment of the present system of education in schools should be made in such a way as not only to prepare pupils for professional and university courses, but also to enable them at the completion of appropriate stages, to be diverted to occupations or to separate vocational institutions.

(2) These stages should be :—

(*a*) The primary stage, which should aim at providing at least a minimum of general education and training and still ensure permanent literacy.

(*b*) The lower secondary stage, which will provide a self-contained course of general education either for higher education or for specialised practical courses.

In rural areas, the courses at this stage should be attuned to rural requirements.

Some form of manual training at this stage should be provided which would aim at the development of practical aptitudes and be made compulsory.

(c) The higher secondary stage, in which would be included institutions with varying length of courses:—

(i) preparing students for admission to universities in arts and science ;

(ii) for the training of teachers in rural areas;

(iii) for agricultural training ;

(iv) for clerical training ; and

(v) for training in selected technical subjects which should be chosen in consultation with employers.

Where separate institutions are not possible for the diversified courses, some of them might be incorporated in a higher secondary course of enlarged scope which would permit a choice of alternative groups of subjects and would end in leaving certificates.

(3) At the end of the lower secondary school course there should be the first public examination.

(4) Candidates desirous of joining the subordinate clerical service of Government and of local bodies should pass such qualifying examinations as might be prescribed by proper authority and should not be more than 19 years of age at the date of their examinations.

The certificate granted to pupils completing other specialised courses should receive Government recognition.

(5) Expert advice would be of value in organising the scheme of reconstruction outlined above; and also for suggesting methods of training masters who would assist pupils and selection, by the pupils, of courses of study with due regard to their aptitudes.

Educational Reports

As the Board had recommended that expert advice would be necessary for planning educational reorganisation, Messrs. A. Abbot, C.B.E., formerly Chief Inspector of Technical Schools, Board of Education, England, and S. H. Wood, M.C., Director of intelligence, Board of Education, England, were invited to India for the purpose. Their visit resulted in the production of the famous report on educational reconstruction commonly known as "Wood-Abbot Report". The most important recommendations outlined in this report are:—

(a) Infant classes should, so far as possible, be entrusted to trained women teachers; and for this and other reasons the development of educational provision for girls and women is of paramount importance.

(b) The education of children in the Primary Schools should be based more upon the natural interests and activities of young children and less upon book learning. Concentrations on literacy as a narrow objective is unsound.

(c) The curriculum of the rural Middle (or Lower Secondary) Schools should be closely related to children's environment; and if English is taught to any children of middle "school" age it should not be allowed to result in an excessive amount of time being devoted to linguistic studies.

(d) The Vernacular language should, so far as possible be the medium of instruction throughout the High (or Higher Secondary) Schools, but English should be a compulsory language for all pupils in these schools.

(e) The teaching of English should be made more domestic and less attention should be devoted by the average boy to the study of English "prose and poetry"—arrangements being made to meet the needs of those boys specially qualified to pursue more advanced English studies.

(f) More systematic attention should be paid to the teaching of Art; and steps should be taken to secure for the High (or Higher Secondary) Schools a supply of qualified teachers of Art.

(g) The pre-employment course of training for teachers of Primary and Middle (or Lower Secondary) Schools should be three-year course following without any gap, the completion of Middle (or Lower Secondary) School course.

In conjunction with the Wood-Abbot Report, the Board gave their considered thought to the scheme of educational reconstruction whose real author was Mahatma Gandhi, which had emerged in the shape of Dr. Zakir Hussain Committee report. The Board accepted the Basic Education Scheme with certain essential modifications, and on this subject two very important reports known as Kher Committee reports were published.

In the expectation that sooner or later the problem of providing India with a system of education approximating to those available in other countries would have to be tackled, serious attention was devoted to the surveying of the main fields of educational activity so as to ascertain the minimum provisions required. Thus since the Board's revival in the year 1935, the various committees of the Board reported among others on following subjects :—

(1) Basic Education (2 reports); (2) Adult Education ; (3) The Physical Welfare of School-children ; (4) School Buildings; (5) Social Service ; (6) The Recruitment, Training and Conditions of Service of Teachers in Primary, Middle and High Schools; (7) The Recruitment of Education Officers ; (8) Technical (including Commercial and Art) Education ; (9) Text-books ; (10) Examinations ; (11) Educational Administration ; (12) Agricultural Education; (13) Religious Education ; (14) Selection of Pupils for Higher Education.

THE PLAN

Two crucial meetings of the Board were those held in October, 1943 and January, 1944 when it reviewed the recommendations of their Committees with special reference to post-war needs and developments. The Board were satisfied that the Educational Adviser's Memorandum on Post-War Educational Development in India, subject to the modifications suggested by them, would provide the foundation upon which an efficient system of public instruction, suited to the needs and circumstances of the country could effectively be erected. Their final recommendations are contained in the published Report on Post-War Educational Development in India (popularly known as the Sargent Report). The main recommendations on which the whole post-war policy is based are given below :

(a) A system of universal, compulsory and free education for all boys and girls between the ages of six and fourteen should be introduced as speedily as possible though in view of the practical difficulty of recruiting the requisite supply of trained teachers it may not be possible to complete it in less than forty years.

(b) The character of the instruction to be provided should follow the general lines laid down in the reports of the Central Advisory Board's two Committees on Basic Education.

(c) The Senior Basic (Middle) School, being the finishing school for the great majority of future citizens, is of fundamental importance and should be generously staffed and equipped.

(d) All education depends on the teacher. The present status and remuneration of teachers and especially those in Primary Schools are deplorable. The standards in regard to the training, recruitment and conditions of service of teachers prescribed in the report of the Committee approved by the Central Advisory Board in 1943 represent the minimum compatible with success in a national system. These should be adopted and enforced everywhere.

(e) A vast increase in the number of trained women teachers will be required.

PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION

(a) An adequate provision of pre-primary instruction in the form of Nursery Schools or classes is an essential adjunct to any national system of education. The provision in this respect at present is negligible.

(b) In urban areas, where sufficient children are available within a reasonable radius, separate Nursery Schools or departments may be provided : elsewhere Nursery classes should be attached to Junior Basic (Primary) Schools.

(c) Nursery Schools and classes should invariably be staffed with women teachers who have received special training for this work.

(d) Pre-primary Education should in all cases be free. While it may not be feasible to make attendance compulsory, no efforts should be spared to persuade parents to send their children to school voluntarily, particularly in areas where housing conditions are unsatisfactory and/or mothers are accustomed to go out to work.

(e) The main object of education at this stage is to give young children social experience rather than formal instruction.

HIGH SCHOOL EDUCATION

(a) The High School course should cover six years and the normal age of admission should be about eleven.

(b) Entry to High Schools should be of a selective basis ; only those pupils should be admitted who show promise of taking full advantage of the education provided. Additional places may be provided for those not selected provided that no cost falls on public funds.

(c) In accordance with the general principle set out in (b) above, places in High Schools should be provided for at least one child in every five of the appropriate age-group.

(d) In order to secure the right children, the methods of selection to be employed will require the most careful consideration. Special arrangements will have to be made for the transfer from Senior Basic (Middle) Schools to High Schools of suitable children and particularly of those who show signs of late development.

(e) High Schools should be of two main types, (A) Academic, (B) Technical. The objective of both should be to provide a good all round education combined with some preparation in the later stages for the careers which pupils will enter on leaving school.

(f) The curriculum in all cases should be as varied as circumstances permit and should not be unduly restricted by the requirements of Universities or examining bodies. As long as English remains the medium of instruction at the Universities it should be compulsory throughout the secondary stage. Youth Movement, Scout Movement and similar extra-curricular activities should be encouraged.

(g) In order that no poor child of ability may be excluded, liberal assistance in the form of free places, scholarships and stipends should be available throughout the course.

(h) In order to secure teachers of the right type, the salaries paid in all recognised schools, whether maintained by the State or by private bodies, should not be less than those prescribed by the Central Advisory Board of Education.

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

(a) Indian Universities, as they exist today, despite many admirable features do not fully satisfy the requirements of a national system of education.

(*b*) In order to raise standards all round, the conditions for admission must be revised with the object of ensuring that all students are capable of taking full advantage of a University Course. The proposed reorganisation of the High School system will facilitate this. Adequate financial assistance must be provided for poor students.

(*c*) The present Intermediate course should be abolished. Ultimately the whole of this course should be covered in the High School but as an immediate step the first year of the course should be transferred to High School and the second to Universities.

(*d*) The minimum length of a University degree course should be three years.

(*e*) The tutorial system should be widely extended and closer personal contacts established between teachers and students.

(*f*) The importance of establishing a high standard in post-graduate studies and particularly in pure and applied research should be emphasised.

(*g*) Steps should be taken to improve the conditions of service, including remuneration of University and College teachers where those now in operation are not attracting men and women of the requisite calibre.

(*h*) An Indian University Grants Committee should be constituted for the purpose and with the terms of reference set out in this chapter.

TECHNICAL, COMMERCIAL & ART EDUCATION

(*a*) In view of the prospective needs of post-war industry and commerce for skilled technicians, and in order to cater for the aptitudes of those who will derive greater benefit from a practical course, the establishment of an efficient system of Technical Education at all stages on the lines set out in the report of the Technical Education Committee, is a matter of great urgency.

(*b*) Due regard should be had to the recommendations of the Wood-Abbot Report in respect of the scope and content of Technical Education.

(*c*) All technical education beyond the school stage other than that given in the technological departments of universities should be placed under a central controlling body (to be called All India Council of Technical Education) having representatives of all the interests concerned.

ADULT EDUCATION

(*a*) Comprehensive arrangements on the general lines set out in the Adult Education Committee's report should form an integral part of education. These are particularly important in India today in view of the very high percentage of illiterates.

(*b*) Literacy is a means and not an end in itself. The present plan of Adult (Social) Education aims at removing illiteracy as well as at teaching the people the fundamentals of citizenship in an independent country.

(*c*) It is estimated even with the introduction of a universal system of Basic education there will be over 9 crores of illiterates (age-group 10-40) to be dealt with. The Government of India have recently so planned the system of Adult (Social) Education, as to make possible the removal of 50 per cent illiteracy in ten years.

(*d*) In this as in all branches of education the quality of the teachers is of supreme importance. The difficulty of obtaining a sufficient number of teachers of the right type, particularly women, must on no account be underestimated.

(*e*) The responsibility for adult education must rest with the State but every effort should be made to enlist the aid of suitable voluntary organisations wherever available.

Literacy and general education are to proceed simultaneously but greater emphasis is to be laid on general education, in order to enable every Indian to fulfil his role of citizenship in the New Order. All possible resources of the country in men and money will be mobilized to attain these objectives and whole-time workers, part-time workers and volunteers will be employed to implement the programme. Owners of mills and factories will be asked to make arrangements for the education of their workers and workers' families, and the Government will make it compulsory for all its employees to attain literacy within a period of three years.

For this programme, modern media of mass education like radio, films, and open air theatres are suggested. In order to prevent backsliding, emphasis is also laid on further education of literates through clubs, discussion groups, summer schools and similar other agencies.

TRAINING OF TEACHERS

(*a*) The proposals for the recruitment and training of teachers as set out in the Report approved by the Central Advisory Board in January, 1943 should be generally adopted.

(*b*) The existing training institutions are barely sufficient to meet wastage among existing teachers to train those hitherto untrained.

(*c*) New Training Schools and Colleges (including University Education Department) must be provided to supply the additional teachers whom a national system will require. These will amount to over 20,00,000 non-graduates for schools of all types and 180,000 graduates for High Schools.

(*d*) Arrangements should be made to pick out suitable boys and girls towards the end of the High School course. This is particularly important in Girls' High Schools in view of the vast increase in the number of women teachers required.

(*e*) The courses provided should be essentially practical and should be specially related to the needs of the schools in which the trainees will subsequently serve.

(*f*) No fees should be charged either in Training Schools or Training Colleges; liberal assistance should be available for the maintenance of poor students.

(*g*) Refresher courses are of the utmost importance and should be provided for all types of teachers but particularly for those in remote rural areas. Facilities should be provided for research and selected teachers should be encouraged to study educational methods in foreign countries.

Provision for ensuring the physical welfare of all pupils and students should be made on the lines set out in the report of the Joint Committee.

EDUCATION OF THE HANDICAPPED

(*a*) Provision for the mentally or physically handicapped should form an essential part of a national system of education and should be administered by the Ministry of Education.

(*b*) While much of the work relating to the education of the handicapped has been done so far by voluntary effort, the Government of India are no less anxious to promote the cause of the education and welfare of the handicapped. The Ministry of Education have set up a special unit which deals with all matters relating to this branch of education. Plans for the establishment of a Braille Printing Press as well as a National Centre for the Blind are in hand.

(*c*) Wherever possible, handicapped children should not be segregated from normal children. Only when the nature and extent of their defect make it necessary, should they be sent to special schools or institutions. Partially handicapped children should receive special treatment at ordinary schools.

(*d*) The blind and deaf need special educational arrangements, including specially trained teachers. The Government of India have also proposed to modernize the existing Teachers Training Centres for the Deaf and Dumb.

(*e*) Particular care should be taken to train the handicapped, wherever possible for remunerative employment for them. After care work is essential.

RECREATIVE & SOCIAL ACTIVITIES

(*a*) The provision of recreative and social activities on an adequate scale is an essential feature of any modern educational system.

(*b*) Apart from the needs of boys and girls in schools and colleges special attention should be paid to those in the 14-20 age-group who are no longer attending school. To serve these a Youth Movement on an All-India basis should be set up.

(*c*) A Youth Movement should aim at co-ordinating and supplementing rather than superseding the work of organisations already dealing with aspects of this problem.

(*d*) This main need of a Youth Movement will be for leaders, both men and women, who will have to be specially trained. The possibility of finding suitable recruits among demobilised Officers and N.C.O.'s should be explored.

(*e*) The provision of social and recreative facilities for adults should form an important part of any Social Service Scheme. Reference is invited to the report of the Board's Committee on Social Service and Public Administration (1941).

Employment Bureau form an essential part of educational administration: they are especially necessary in India in view of the restricted openings at the moment for progressive employment.

Employment Bureau, if they are to fulfil successfully their legitimate functions must be staffed by trained experts with practical experience of teaching and of industrial conditions.

While contact should be maintained with Employment Exchanges, Labour Tribunals, etc. established by other Departments, Employment Bureau which deal with the output of educational institutions should be under the control of the Education Department.

ADMINISTRATION

(*a*) The States should remain the main units for educational administration except in regard to University and Higher Technical Education, the activities of which could be co-ordinated on an All-India basis.

(*b*) The Director of Public Instruction should be directly responsible for the general administration of education, other than University and Higher Technical Education, throughout the State. He should also be Secretary for Education, should it be thought necessary to keep in existence a separate post of this kind.

(*c*) A national system of education will mean closer co-operation, financial and otherwise between the Central and State Governments.

(*d*) State Governments should be left to make such changes in their administrative arrangements as the carrying out of education developments on the scale contemplated may require. Experience, however, suggests that they would be well-advised to resume all educational powers from local bodies, except where these are functioning effectively.

(*e*) In order to enlist local interest in education, School Managing Bodies, School Board and District Education Committees may be constituted, if and when sufficient people of the right type are available to serve on them. An Educational Advisory Board for the whole State may be desirable.

(*f*) A strong Education Department will be required at the Centre and in this connection the scope and functions of the Central Advisory Board should be enlarged.

(*g*) Steps should be taken in accordance with the recommendations of the Board's Committee on the Recruitment of Education Officers (1943) to check the present deterioration in the status and calibre of the educational administrative service

and to enable it to secure the services of the type of officer who will be capable of carrying a scheme of the kind contemplated into successful operation.

(h) Arrangements should be made for the exchange of officers between the Centre and the States and between one State and another. The desirability of establishing a senior educational administrative service on an All-India basis should receive consideration.

SOME OBJECTIONS

That is the basis on which Indian education is to be organized,with one difference. It was thought that forty years was much too long a period to wait for universal free education. A subsequent committee under B. G. Kher, the Prime Minister of Bombay shortened the term to 16 years divided into three periods two of five years and the last of six. The chief obstacle in the way of realization has been finance.

As a result of the general agreement which State Governments expressed with the policy outlined in the Board's report the Government of India generally accepted, subject to the limitation of finance, the principles and objects of the Board's scheme.

In 1944, the Government of India asked the State Governments to prepare their Five-Year Post-War Educational Development Plans on the general lines laid down in the report of the Central Advisory Board of Education. Early in 1946, the State Governments were asked to select a few important schemes like Training of Teachers, and Compulsory Primary Education from their plans, and start implementing them after their approval by the Government of India. All the schemes submitted by the State Governments to the Government of India were examined, and such of them as conformed to the recommendations contained in the Report were approved by the Government of India for immediate execution.

The comments of the Sub-committee of the National Planning Committee (old) may be reproduced here. The Sub-committee says that the system in the Wardha scheme of a child learning a craft by the end of the school career to start a vocational life, is spiritually harmful to the child, as the vocation becomes the principal object of education. This gives a narrow and shallow knowledge of the subjects taught.

While accepting the syllabus for the primary schools under the Wardha scheme as satisfactory, the committee suggests that algebra should be taught side by side with arithmetic, and British units of length, area, volume, weight and currency may be avoided and Indian units substituted.

The report is not in favour of what is known as the exchange motion under the Wardha scheme, according to which current expenditure of the school is expected to be met by the sale of the goods produced in the technical section by the students. The report emphasizes that these schools should be a direct burden on the State.

Primary education covering a period of seven years, according to the report, should be free and compulsory for all children and may be co-educational, the medium of instruction being the mother tongue.

After the primary course of seven years, secondary schools of general arts and sciences of three or four years' course should be established, and these three or four years should prepare students for admission to the university or higher technical or professional courses. Secondary schools, admission to which is not to be compulsory, should provide the study of Western languages, preferably English, the medium of instruction remaining the mother tongue.

A regular sifting of students is to be made after completion of the primary school course. Only those intellectually fitted will enter the secondary schools and the rest will enter what are called "continuation schools" for training in arts and crafts and industries such as drawing, artistic designs, general economics, civics, accounts and physical culture and gymnastics.

EDUCATION IN THE INDIAN ARMY

The section may be wound up with a note on education in the Army. Before the war the Indian Army had a system of education whereby all soldiers received instruction as an integral part of their training. Their school knowledge, if any, was revised and extended. Illiterate recruits were taught to read and write in Roman Urdu and further graded instruction was given upto roughly the Matriculation standard.

The outbreak of war and the consequent expansion of the army brought in large numbers of recruits, many of them illiterate, of different races, and speaking different languages. These had to be educated in a short time up to the standards required for the ranks they might hold and the parts they would have to play in a complicated mechanised army. And they had to be considered not merely as units of a machine but as individuals and prospective civilians of a developing State.

To deal with the problems that arose, the Army Educational Corps on whom the responsibility for their educational training devolved was expanded—largely by the intake of Indian Officers. And the educational training of the men was divided into two parts—normal and wartime.

Normal education is a development of the pre-war system, simplified and intensified. Wartime education, in spite of its title, dealt with war and peace. The technique adopted was that of the discussion group, within the unit, led by the platoon Commander under supervision of an officer of the unit.

The unit discussions and associated activities are based on handbooks and periodical pamphlets issued by the Directorate of Army Education at General Headquarters (India).

On the cessation of hostilities, an elaborate educational plan was put into operation by the Army—THE RELEASE PERIOD EDUCATION SCHEME (INDIAN TROOPS)—The object of the scheme was to use the time between the cessation of hostilities and the date fixed for the soldier's release from service to prepare him for return to civil life as a better, more useful citizen educationally, more capable of obtaining a better position in civil life. The scheme not only constituted a powerful drive against illiteracy, but also included graded instruction from the literacy stage in a man's own vernacular to the Matriculation stage in English. The I.A. SPECIAL certificate of Education, the highest certificate obtainable in the I.A. is now recognised by most universities in India as equivalent to their Matriculation standard. The scheme also provided for intensive instruction in the principles of citizenship and rural and urban development.

UNIVERSITY COMMISSION REPORT

The main conclusions of the University Commission report were made public on 25th August, 1949. The report itself covers over 600 pages and 100 pages of appendix and deals with various aspects of present-day Indian education including the medium of instruction, professional education, standards of teaching, post-graduate training and research, religious education, financing of universities and co-education.

The main object is to make education more Indian in character so that the product might be representative of Indian genius.

One of the serious complaints against the present educational system is that it is divorced from Indian life and thought. Today, Indian Universities discuss more of Shakespeare, Milton and others and not India's own writers. Universities in the United Kingdom and America give a historical background of the subjects which make up the genius of those countries while in India education has been more or less on an "un-Indian basis." One of the main objects is to make education more Indian in character so that the product may be representative of Indian genius.

Another recommendation of the Commission is to make professional education more relevant to India's needs. If one turned to agriculture, one would find that India's methods are archaic and primitive, while her problems are modern, requiring modern methods for their solution. Every system of education has its own objectives. The Soviet system aims at building up a particular class of society. The American system gives scholars the fundamentals of the American Constitution and makes them citizens of the American Republic.

Similarly our aim should be the objective of our Constitution, namely, a democratic society which has for its fundamental principles freedom, equality, and fraternity. They give us faith and a working philosophy of life.

On the question of religious instruction India being a secular State, could not identify itself with any one religion and so far as State institutions are concerned, there could be no denominational or sectarian religious considerations. The Commission recommends the starting of institutions for "silent meditation" where the lives of religious leaders like Bhudda, Jesus, Mohammed and Confucius may be studied in a reverent and dispassionate way.

Without any dogmatism, selections from the Scriptures of the world may be brought together and problems of philosophy and religion taught in a very general sense. This is in consonance with the general spirit of the country. It is to make people realise "that our destinies are ruled by an unseen power."

Religion might be studied academically even in State-maintained educational systems. There was a difference between the preaching of dogma and the study of religion.

In regard to co-education, the Commission's recommendation is that in the secondary stages there should be separation and in the basic and collegiate stages co-education.

Elections in the teaching profession must be avoided and important posts like those of Vice-Chancellor and Dean should not be thrown to academic log rolling. This often leads to friction in Universities and "mud-slinging." In U.K., Vice-Chancellors were appointed for life or by rotation.

The State should be liberal in the grant of scholarships. In Oxford between 50 and 60 per cent of the students was assisted by the State and poverty should be no bar to the prosecution of higher studies. In the U.K. £12,500,000 were paid by way of State grants to Universities and besides, Government spent over £8,000,000 by way of scholarships.

Again, in the U.K. and America, about 11 to 12 per cent of the country's Budget was spent on education while in India the amount spent was less than five per cent of the Budget including sums spent by Governments and local authorities.

Evening Colleges for workmen and other people should be started.

The maximum strength for any college should be 1,500. The Commission saw instances where there were 5,000 to 6,000 students on the rolls, while the actual accommodation provided was only for 1,500. Such institutions could be found in Bombay and Calcutta. Lack of individual attention led to frustration and exploitation of students by the politician, revolutionary or reactionary.

The Commission lays considerable stress on improving the standards of the teaching profession. The position today appears to be that anyone who was not fit for anything was made

a teacher. The ablest type of men in the country are being driven to other services. Research and teaching should be regarded as the main concern of any civilised society. There could, however, be no improvement so long as the salaries paid to teachers remain what they are, and the best talent could not be attracted unless the salaries paid to them approximated with those in other services.

Technical, Professional Education

In regard to professional education, the Commission has recommended more adequate schemes to be undertaken. Seventy per cent of the population in India is engaged in agricultural occupations and yet the country is dependent for food on other countries, while in America only 13 per cent are engaged in agriculture and they produce 60 per cent of the world's export of food grains.

Similarly, with regard to industrial development there is a great paucity of technical and executive personnel.

The Commission has also made recommendations in respect of the legal and medical professions. Despite eminent lawyers in India, there has not been any outstanding contribution to the legal science as such. There is need today for a first class Medical Research Institute.

On the question of examinations, which has been "a great curse in this country" the Commission's view is that there is something radically wrong with the present system.

The great mathematician Ramanujam failed in the first Arts examination as he was not able to stand the "tests" but his contribution to mathematics was outstanding. Examinations fail to bring out the actual calibre of the students.

The Commission has therefore made "certain drastic recommendations in this regard." They have proposed the "objective test" which is in vogue in America. The U.S. Army and Navy held "objective tests" in recruiting officers and men during the war. Many big business firms and corporations are adopting this method which does not involve long, written examinations and students are not thrown just to trust luck. Hundreds of questions are put to students of which only one or two require an essay kind of reply. The test involves no gamble or luck.

On the question of language the Commission has recommended that the medium of instruction for higher education should be the regional language, with option to use the federal language either for some subjects or for all subjects.

The Commission has also recommended that where the mother tongue is not the same as the federal language, the federal language is to be studied from the first form. If the mother tongue and the federal language are identical, students would be required to take any other Indian classical or modern language. If Hindi happens to be the mother-tongue of a student, the student would be required to study some other Indian language.

There must be no attempt at hasty displacement of English as a medium of instruction for academic standards. Indian languages have to grow and must become proper media for communication. To displace English by a State or the federal language may result in deterioration of standards. Therefore, while State Governments should make their languages more potent as early as possible no time-limit should be prescribed. Languages will have to grow and there cannot be a time-limit. During the transition English will remain.

Besides the special connection which this country has with English it is becoming more popular in other countries as well. In Soviet Russia, University students are asked to learn one of the European languages and over 90 per cent of the pupils take English as their second language.

The Commission is of the opinion that English should be taught from the third form (three years before matric.) for those who desire to enter the University.

In the inter-State border areas where the regional language may be different from that of the mother tongue of a student the medium of instruction must be the mother-tongue up to a particular stage and students would be asked to study the federal language as well.

It is recommended that State and Central Governments should establish bureaux of translation.

ADVISORY BOARD'S RECOMMENDATIONS

A special meeting of the Central Advisory Board was held at New Delhi on April 22 and 23, 1950 to consider the report of the University Education Commission. The Board accepted the recommendations regarding post-graduate teaching and research with special emphasis on the desirability of Ph.D. students being internal students of the university concerned. The examination for Ph.D. should include a thesis and a test of the candidate's general knowledge of the whole field of the subject.

In view of the acute shortage of scientific man-power, the Commission had emphasised the desirability of training a large number of scientists in order that the country might get a few men of outstanding calibre. They also recommended the institution of a large number of scholarships and free places for really good students at the M.Sc. and Ph.D. stage for this purpose. Fundamental research should be the primary concern of the universities and universities should not be precluded from taking up special applied problems concerning their own regions.

Regarding professional education, the Commission's recommendations about the teaching of agriculture, commerce, education, engineering and technology, law and medicine were accepted by the Board with very few modifications.

Regarding admission to law colleges, the Board decided that a 3-year degree course in pre-legal and general studies should be required for admission to the law course but the course for a degree in law would be of two years' duration only, to be followed by practical training such as may be prescribed by the High Courts concerned.

The Board also accepted the Commission's recommendations regarding new provisions including business administration, public administration and industrial relations with added provision for training in social service.

On the question of religious education, the Board decided that all educational institutions might provide a few minutes for silent meditation. Besides, lives of great religious leaders should be taught in the first year and the central problems of philosophy and religion should be considered in the third year. The Board also resolved that studies in religious philosophy might be provided for in universities.

Regarding the Commission's recommendations about objective examinations the Board adopted a resolution generally approving the recommendations and calling upon universities to implement these as far as possible.

The recommendations of the Commission regarding students, their activities and welfare as also women's education were generally approved by the Board.

Regarding the constitution and control of universities, the Board generally approved the recommendations of the Commission, subject to the provisions in the Constitution wherein university education had been placed on the Union list. Approving the recommendations of the Commission regarding university finance, the Board's resolution pointed out that the implementation of all the recommendations of the Commission accepted by the Board would depend upon the finances made available for this purpose.

About the recommendations made by the Commission regarding individual universities, Central and others, the Board decided that the Government of India should take up the case of each university in consultation with the university authorities and the State Government concerned.

The Commission's recommendations regarding new universities and asking for special attention to be paid to the development of higher education in rural areas were also approved.

The Board also adopted resolutions regarding the harm done by private coaching academies and the measures to regulate them and the question of private practice by Government medical officers.

Finally the Board discussed ways and means to be adopted to popularise Hindi specially in the non-Hindi States. In this connection it approved of the following suggestions:

(*i*) The most essential step in this connection would be to bring out cheap and attractive publications in Hindi on a variety of subjects which are of interest to the masses.

(*ii*) A set of gramophone records may be prepared with the help of which one could learn the language without a tutor.

(*iii*) Lessons in Hindi broadcast from schools may be repeated at great frequency.

(*iv*) Documentary and news films in Hindi should be produced increasingly. There should also be improvement of entertainment films in Hindi so that they may attract the cultured classes.

(*v*) Institution of proficiency tests in Hindi for Central Government servants with prizes for successful candidates.

(*vi*) Introduction of a test in Hindi in competitive examinations for Central Services without making this a handicap for candidates from non-Hindi States.

The Board asked the Central Education Ministry to examine these suggestions and implement them as soon as possible. It might be stated here that at the January meeting of the Board Maulana Azad had given it as his opinion that in the final analysis English should yield place to India's national language at the university stage. But it was a matter on which any hasty decision would be unwise.

THE YEAR IN REVIEW

The 18th Meeting of the Central Advisory Board was held at Trivandrum on January, 13 and 14, 1951. The Rajpramukh of Travancore-Cochin inaugurated the meeting and Mr. B. G. Kher, the Chief Minister of Bombay presided in the absence of Maulana Abul Kalam Azad. There were 20 items on the agenda. The most important of these items were a review of progress made under the educational development plans implemented by the Central Government and States, and progress made in the field of technical education with the modified overseas scholarship scheme. The report on displaced teachers and students from Pakistan also engaged the attention of the Board during the session. Other interesting items on the agenda included the devising of methods to achieve greater uniformity and co-ordination in regard to the standard and duration of secondary education in different States and the Union, consideration of steps to be taken to promote a youth movement in India, suggestions to encourage children's literature in the country and consideration of the question of medium of examination in non-language subjects for the admission of boys and girls into preparatory institutions, for armed

forces and the merchant navy. The Board also reviewed the progress made till then in the revision of the Indian Braille code. The Board also considered a proposal to introduce Gandhian literature as a compulsory subject in all schools and colleges.

The Rajpramukh stressed the need for reorienting the system of education. He urged the necessity particularly of remodelling secondary school education with a view to the proper development of character and the inculcation of discipline in pupils.

Dr. Tarachand, Secretary, Ministry of Education, Government of India, said that as the result of adverse financial conditions, plans for basic and social education, for the expansion of technical education and for the improvement of higher education, which the States had drawn up reckoning upon the help promised from the Centre, had to be slowed down or abandoned.

Stressing the importance of technical and social education, he added, " Without a well planned system of technical education which produced personnel for industry at all stages, we cannot build up a sound industrial structure, without which we cannot depend on ourselves, we cannot fight famine, poverty, disease and ignorance."

Mr. B. G. Kher, said the task before them was to develop the national system of education. He called the attention of the Board to the problems of the educated unemployed and referred to the self-supporting aspect and importance of basic education. He added that training of teachers was the first difficulty they had to overcome.

" One hears complaints of indiscipline and unhealthy, premature political activities on the part of students. It is necessary there should be some guidance from the Board for leisure-time activities of students, particularly for the age groups of fourteen to twenty. Research must be undertaken for finding out the aptitudes of children and free advice provided. This question is also engaging the attention of U.N.E.S.C.O. and I hope if not in this, in some other session, special time will be devoted to consideration of these important subjects."

The Board considered the question of disseminating Gandhian literature and urged educational departments of State Governments to promote the study of the works of Mahatma Gandhi in schools and colleges.

The Board expressed its concern over the delay in the implementation of the recommendations of the Government of India to appoint a commission on secondary education with a view to raising its quality and extend its scope. The Board urged the Central and State Governments to provide more funds for Basic education.

Other questions discussed were the appointment of a committee by the President of the Board for laying down principles to be followed in the preparation of text books on social education and the training of teachers ; another committee for studying and reporting on the work of rural colleges in Bihar and elsewhere ; modification of the scheme of overseas scholarships to include candidates sponsored by State Governments and universities on the same basis as candidates fostered by Universities under the Government of India and the need for the continued use of international terms of scientific terminologies in the country.

The 7th All-India Basic Education Conference was held at Sevagram on March 3, 1951 with Mr. Badrinath Verma, Education Minister of Bihar presiding. There were 600 delegates and educational experts at the conference. Mr. Verma stated that, although the ideal of Basic education as enunciated by Mahatma Gandhi was accepted in principle by all educationists in the country, the necessary change in the outlook of the authorities of the States and other educational institutions had not come about even after independence. Old university degrees and curricula of studies still enjoyed the same official privileges, while the educated were still divorced from life in the villages.

He invited the attention of educationists to the organisation of rural universities, and said that he would prefer " ruralisation " of the existing institutions to starting new ones.

Inaugurating the conference, the Chief Minister of Madhya Pradesh, Pandit Ravi Shankar Shukla, said that educationists had to face two problems regarding Basic education—the raising of the standard of education and provision of free universal education.

Referring to the proposal for development of rural universities, Pandit Shukla said the planning of such universities would require most careful consideration, and the country would watch the development with great expectations. He asked basic education experts to consider the proposal and formulate concrete plans.

Mr. Jawaharlal Nehru, in a message to the conference said : " The approach to education should not be too rigid and should allow free play for experiment and the development of the individual and of the society we aim at."

The general principle of Basic education, he said, was accepted long ago by the Congress and a number of Provincial Governments tried to apply it in various ways.

" These Provincial Governments were criticised for deviating from the original idea. I am unable to say how far these deviations have been justified. But on general principles, it seems to me that in any such experiments it is desirable to have variety. There is always the danger of too much orthodoxy killing the spirit, and preventing the development of an inquisitive and experimental mind."

Dr. Rajendra Prasad, in a message, said the time had now come when Basic education, whose value had been proved by the work done at Sevagram and in Bihar, should be extended over a wider field and the principles of " Nai Talim " applied to all education up to the highest stage.

The Central Government filled a wide gap in the Basic scheme by producing a detailed syllabus for junior and senior schools. In a preface to the pamphlet that carried this syllabus the Joint Educational Adviser warned teachers that the handbook was to be used only for general guidance and need not be followed in every detail like a text-book or manual. It would greatly help the teacher in using the various crafts to carry out the ideals of Basic education.

A strongly-worded support for the Basic scheme of education also came from the Government of Bombay in a note issued in April 1950. The note set out once again the ideas underlying Basic Education and claimed that students who took the Basic Course had on the whole a better record than those who took other courses.

" Careful enquiries have revealed that the progress of these children in academic studies has not suffered in any way. On the contrary, it is on the whole considerably better than that in ordinary schools.

" The following figures of Primary School Certificate Examination results pertaining to the last three years are relevant in this connection.

Percentage of passes from all Basic schools 1947 47.1 ; 1948 50.0 ; 1949 58.0.

Percentage of passes from ordinary Primary Schools in these Districts (Satara, East Khandesh, Surat and Dharwar) 1947 40 ; 1948 38.4 ; 1949 41.4.

" The following activities have become a regular feature of almost every Basic school and through it children learn to carry out their social and civic responsibilities and get training in citizenship.

1. Cleanliness campaign in villages.

2. Celebration of religious and national festivals and jayantis.

3. Entertainment programmes and simple dramatisation of educative topics.

4. Manuscript magazines.

5. " Vastra Swavlambi " groups to produce cloth necessary for their own use.

6. Some kind of ' self-government ' to train children in managing their own affairs.

7. Regular and systematic excursions and contact with nature.

8. ' Grow More Food ' and ' Tree Planting ' campaigns. Every ' agriculture-bias ' school maintains compost pits and gives demonstrations in compost-making.

9. Children work as volunteers at the time of local fairs, festivals, functions, etc.

10. In all Basic schools in the State, emphasis is laid more on the educative value of the activity and the economic and productive aspects are not permitted to drive that consideration into the background. However, experience shows that self-sufficiency is possible with regard, at least, to the recurring cost on craft work.

The progress of primary education in Bombay appeared very encouraging from a consideration of the figures quoted by the State's Director of Public Instruction. Primary education, said the D.P.I. had reached 75 per cent of the children of school-going age. In 1921 about 23 per cent of children of school-going age were attending schools, in 1931 about 38 per cent, in 1946 50 per cent and in 1949 75 per cent. This progress became possible because the State Government assumed full responsibility for the extra expenditure incurred in the expansion. In money the expenditure had jumped from Rs. one crore to Rs. eight crores per annum. This was an achievement, the D.P.I. concluded, that put Bombay at the top, except for Travancore-Cochin, in this sphere of work.

During the year three reports concerning education were published—the National Education Planning Committee's report, the report of the Bhise Committee on secondary education in Bombay and the report of the Chagla Committee on legal education in Bombay.

EDUCATION PLANNING COMMITTEE REPORT

During 1951 the report of the National Education Planning Committee constituted by the All-India Federation of Educational Associations was published. This report was adopted by the All-India Education Conference which met at the Osmania University in Hyderabad on January 11, 1951.

According to the report the general structure of national education should consist of pre-basic, basic, post-basic and post-graduate and research stages.

The pre-basic stage should be for children of age group of three to seven.

The duration of the basic stage should be eight years for children of the age group seven to fifteen. The duration of post-basic should be four years for age group 15 to 19, corresponding to the existing age of graduation. The post-graduate stage should be extended to two years and the period of research will vary according to the needs of the subject of study.

The system of Basic education for immediate adoption in the scheme of national education was also commended.

The Committee held that the medium of instruction at the pre-basic stage should be the mother-tongue, and if the mother-tongue happens to be other than the regional language, instruction should be provided in it if there are at least

20 pupils in the class. At the basic stage the medium of instruction should be the regional language, but where it is other than the mother-tongue, the mother-tongue should be the medium if there is a sufficient number of students, say 30, in each class on the average. For the post-graduate stage the medium of instruction should be either the regional language or the national language. In cases of institutions of all-India character, requiring highly specialised staff, the medium should be the national language. But it is very essential that technical terms should be common to all Indian languages even if the medium of instruction at the post-basic and post-graduate stages is the regional language. The language for publication of all research work must however be the national language. Students of the post-basic stage should learn at least one of the foreign languages, such as English, French, German, Russian, Chinese or Japanese.

The Committee further held that examinations are given more importance than they deserve, and recommended that 50 per cent of aggregate marks should be reserved for class records and day to day work. Instead of allotting marks to individual answer books, they should only classify them into four categories, for even a conscientious examiner cannot claim to guage accurately minute differences between one answer book and another of more or less the same standard. Principles underlying intelligence tests should be introduced in question papers. *Vive Voce* tests should be compulsory at least at graduate and post-graduate courses of study.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

Though the Central Government had under consideration a plan for the appointment of a Commission to enquire into secondary education no commission was actually appointed. In this connection a note on the so-called Bhise Committee appointed by the Government of Bombay may be included here. The report was published in February 1950. It asked that there should be such expansion of education among the 11–14 age group that by 1960-61 there should be compulsory education for the whole of this group in the State. In order to induce enrolment in the Standards V to VII there could be scholarships for backward classes and for all girl students, as well as presents for the poorer students. Other recommendations were (*i*) the duration of the secondary course should be lengthened to five years, and if possible to six; (*ii*) the first two years of the university course should be transferred to the high school stage; if this was not possible at least the first year; (*iii*) it was not desirable to have separate institutions like Intermediate Colleges; (*iv*) Standards V to VII should be treated as primary and no fee charged for these standards in public primary schools; (*v*) the teaching of English should be regarded as an all-India problem; (*vi*) Government should establish central school in suitable places and first grade primary schools in as many villages as possible. The central school should serve as a model and it should also run a Community Centre; (*vii*) Only such teachers as have passed the S.S.C. or an equivalent examination should teach Standards V to VII, they should receive a continuous professional education for two years. The present S.T.C. examination has outlived its utility and should be abolished; (*viii*) a training unit for an annual output of 80 teachers should be set up in every District; (*ix*) encouragement should be given to primary teachers to have their wives and daughters trained for the teaching profession and scholarships should be given to girls throughout the Standards VIII to XI if they agreed to join the teaching profession after passing S.S.C.; (*x*) to keep down the costs of education there should be co-education throughout the primary stage and all separate girls' schools teaching Standards I to VI in urban areas should be abolished within three years; (*xi*) the Lokshala course is an anachronism and should be abolished. Meanwhile Lokshala graduates should be treated as being equal to holders of S.S.C.

UNIVERSITY REORGANISATION

The Committee set up by the Government of Bombay to enquire into the reorganisation of Bombay University also published its report during the year. It recommends that the University should be reorganized on the lines of Oxford and Cambridge and that external degrees should be instituted. The Committee was presided over by Mr. Justice N. H. Bhagwati, Vice-Chancellor of Bombay University.

The Committee suggests that it should have three types of institutions—(*a*) University Departments, (*b*) constituent colleges and (*c*) institutions situated within or without the University area and recognised only for the purpose of advanced study and research. It is proposed that all the Government colleges in Greater Bombay should be transferred to the University.

The idea that the Universities in the State should hold their own entrance examination has been favoured. At the same time it is stated that Government should hold their own examinations for recruitment to their own services. The taking over by the Bombay University of present First-Year Examinations is opposed but one University examination at the end of the first two years of the present Degree Courses in all the subjects is recommended.

As regards the conduct of examinations, the Committee recommends that: (*i*) the University should so design its examinations that they may afford sufficient evidence of the instruction, training and education which students have received in the University; (*ii*) for the appointment of external examiners, panels of examiners should be exchanged between the Universities in the State of Bombay; and panels of examiners should be invited from bodies such as the All-India Medical Council, the Council of Legal Education, and the like which may be set up in the State of Bombay; (*iii*) the University should make earnest efforts to improve the condition of teachers so as to make it possible for them to devote themselves to teaching and research; (*iv*) the University should institute two Boards of University Teaching—one for the Faculties of Arts, Law and Commerce, and the other for the Faculties of Science, Technology and Medicine—for the purpose of supervising, co-ordinating and controlling all University teaching; (*v*) the University must undertake direct responsibility for post-graduate teaching and research and should centralise such teaching in each subject in one place, preferably in institutions of its own; (*vi*) the Joint Board of Vice-Chancellors should bring about a co-ordination of the facilities for advanced studies and research between the Universities in the State; (*vii*) the University should co-ordinate the facilities afforded by the college libraries and public libraries in Greater Bombay for the purpose of promoting advanced study and research; (*viii*) the University should supervise and exercise an effective control over post-intermediate teaching. It should have the power to undertake direct responsibility for the teaching of post-intermediate courses, but it should not be obligatory upon it to do so immediately; (*ix*) the Degree Courses in the University should be divided into General and Honours Courses, the General Course being of two years and the Honours Course of three years' duration after the Intermediate Course. The University should take direct responsibility for the conduct of the teaching of the Honours Courses, relegating the General Courses to the system of co-ordination between the constituent colleges under the supervision and control of the University; and (*x*) teaching up to the Intermediate stage should be left to the constituent colleges themselves under the supervision and control of the University as is done today.

English should be the medium of instruction for a period of 15 years, to be replaced by Hindi in the Devnagari script by a process of gradual evolution, according to the directions of the Indian Constitution in that behalf.

Elections to the various University bodies should be reduced to a minimum. The members of the Senate should hold office for five years and those of the Syndicate and the Academic Council for three years.

The appointment of a full-time paid Pro-Vice-Chancellor, who will ordinarily look to the academic side of the University's work is proposed.

The report says that the University should not undertake the responsibility of providing religious instruction to its students.

CHAGLA REPORT ON LEGAL EDUCATION

An important report produced during the year was that of the Committee appointed by the Government of Bombay to suggest reforms in the system of legal education. The Committee was presided over by Mr. M. C. Chagla the Chief Justice of the High Court of Judicature at Bombay.

Among the main recommendations were the institution of a Council of Legal Education for standardising and controlling legal education, a three-year degree course in Law and one-year diploma courses in Insurance, Income-Tax and Banking, Labour, Company and Mercantile Laws.

The Committee also suggests that the number of subjects for diploma courses, which should be taught in a Law College or in other classes recognised by the Council of Legal Education, may be increased as further need is felt. The admission stage for these courses should be the Matriculation or the S.S.C. Examination and the examination for the diploma should be held by the University or the Council of Legal Education.

The members of the Council, the Committee suggests, should be: the Deans of the Faculties of Law of the Universities, the Advocate-General, the Government Pleader, the President of the Incorporated Law Society and one member from Teachers of Law in the State, two Judges of the High Court, two representatives of the Bar and one representative of the Bar Council, all these to be nominated by the Chief Justice, who is to be the President.

The function of the Council should be to advise the Universities in the matter of law courses and text-books; to bring about co-ordination between the work of instruction and examination carried on by different professional bodies and the Universities so that overlapping may be prevented; to hold Diploma examinations and confer Diplomas in Law; and generally to supervise legal education in the State so that a uniformity of standard may be maintained.

The Committee says that law must now be treated by the Universities as an educational and cultural subject, leaving it to the professional bodies such as the Bar Council or the Council of Legal Education to look after the practical and professional training of a student of law and that legal education must include the study of social sciences either at the pre-legal stage, or simultaneously with the study of law.

The stage of admission to the LL.B. course should be the passing of only the Intermediate Arts or the Intermediate Commerce Examination and the course should be of three years' duration after admission to the study of law including the professional and practical course which should be of one year's duration after the LL.B. examination. This course should be taught in a Law College and the LL.B. Degree examination at the end of the two year's law course should be held by the Universities and the professional examination at the end of the third year's law course by the Bar Council or the Council of Legal Education.

The Committee also recommends a three years' pre-legal course after the Matriculation or the S.S.C. examination ; the first two years' of this course up to the Intermediate Arts or the Intermediate Commerce Examination to be taught in an Arts or a Commerce College, and the last one year's course in a Law College.

Regarding post-graduate studies in Law, the Committee recommends an LL.M. Degree which should be either by papers or by thesis. The duration of the LL.M. course should be two years after the LL.B. examination. As for the LL.M. degree by thesis, a student should submit his thesis in any legal topic two years after the LL.B. examination and there should be a viva-voce examination to test his knowledge of the subject.

The Committee also makes recommendations regarding advance studies in law and research. It suggests that the University of Bombay Should set up an institute for advanced studies in law, or there should be two centres in the State for such studies and research—one in the Poona Law College under the aegis of the Poona University, and the other in the Government Law College, Bombay, under the aegis of the Bombay University and Government should share the financial burden of the two Universities involved in the creation of the two centres.

The Committee is in favour of the retention of the present method of teaching law by formal lectures but suggests the synopsis of lectures should be given to students in advance. It also prescribes qualifications for teachers of law.

UNIVERSITIES

The Inter-University Board at a meeting in March 1950 approved the affiliation of Jammu and Kashmir University, Maharashtra University of Poona and Roorkee University.

There was a tendency for Universities from a particular region to get together to discuss subjects of regional interest. Thus the Vice-Chancellors of South Indian Universities held a meeting in Madras on April 13, 1950. They also decided to make the Conference a permanent feature. Similarly a meeting of the Vice-Chancellors of the six statutory universities in Bombay State decided to form what was called 'Joint Board of the Universities in Bombay State.' The Board will be purely advisory and recommendatory and will deal with such matters as avoiding duplication, schemes of expansion, migration of students, inter-University sports and so on. The Chairmanship will be by rotation.

The University of Bombay set up a twelve member Committee to report on the question of the reorganization of the Bombay University. It was thought that this became necessary consequent on the establishment of regional universities in the State. To save time the Committee was also asked to submit a draft of an Amendment Act.

A number of new universities were in the offing—Madhya Bharat and PEPSU Universities, for instance. In Bihar a bill was under preparation for the establishment of regional universities and the conversion of Patna University into a residential university. In U.P. a new university might be set up centred on Gorakhpur. There was also a proposal to start a residential university of theology and philosophy at Brindaban.

Poona University decided to institute two external degrees in Arts, the Bachelor's and the Master's for persons who were employed and who resided in the University area and for married women.

There was some agitation during the year on the admission of students to colleges in Madras on a communal proportion. A reference to the High Court in the State elicited the verdict that this was against the new Constitution and the Government of Madras accordingly withdraw the 'Communal G.O.' as it was called. The Madras University Syndicate, however favoured the continuance of admission on communal lines particularly to professional colleges so far as south India was concerned.

At a special meeting of the Inter-University Board in Nagpur in August 1950 Pandit Dubey, Vice-Chancellor of Nagpur University, suggested a detailed survey of the needs of universities of various types in each area and the needs, academic and financial of each university. Such a survey should be undertaken by Central and State Governments jointly with the universities concerned.

One University body—the Madras University Academic Council—expressed an opinion on the question of religious education. It decided at a meeting in September 1950 that all colleges should be encouraged to offer such moral and religious education as the management found appropriate and possible subject to the provisions of the Constitution.

An item of some interest that may be noted here was an international students' seminar that was held in Mysore in July 1950. Delegates came from all over the world and the subject chosen for discussion was the role of the University in social development. Dr. Winburn Thomas, Secretary, World Students' Christian Federation who delivered the principal address drew attention to some of the more important weaknesses of present day university education. First there was the pluralistic attitude which had a disintegrating effect. Universities did not know what they were searching or what to do with it when they found it. The average student of the university came out an evolutionist in natural science, a materialist in history, a determinist in economics and an idealist in politics. Then there was the denial of religious faith. The traditional 'ivory tower' altitude of social isolation was yet another weakness. Also, there was the absence of close contact between the teacher and the taught which existed in the old days. Mr. Winburn proposed the setting up of pilot universities wherever it was possible.

Another conference of note was the 23rd annual conference of the International Student Service in Bombay in 1950 August. Mr. Venkatarangaiya of Bombay University posed three questions : should scientists call a halt to their researches lest they should be applied to uses which were anti-social ? How could universities assist is expunging all national bias from text-books ? Did the programmes of work of the universities call for modification in order that they might contribute to the development of character and the cultivation of a humanistic outlook ?

The University of Utkal made it compulsory for its students to render three months service to the country during vacation by spreading education among the masses.

LANGUAGE QUESTION

The Government of India urged on the State Governments the necessity of introducing Hindi as a compulsory subject in the secondary schools throughout the Union with a view to achieving the object of making Hindi the national language within a period of fifteen years as laid down in the Constitution. For its own part the Central Government decided to start Hindi classes outside office hours for such of its staff as were under 40 years of age. Employees coming from non-Hindi speaking areas were to attend these classes and also pass a test in Hindi.

The Government of Bombay restricted admission to schools where English is permitted to be used as the medium of instruction to the following categories of students :—1. Children whose mother tongue is certified by parents or guardians to be English, 2. Children who have been studying with English as medium, 3. Children for whom facilities for education in their mother tongue are not available within a mile of their homes when so certified by the Inspector of schools, 4. Children whose parents or guardians are subject to inter-State or inter-regional transfer when certified by the head of the Department or head of the firm.

The University of Bombay also decided to prescribe Hindi as a course of study for the B.A.

The preparation of text-books in Hindi was a crucial matter.

A meeting of the Vice-Chancellors of Hindi speaking areas held in October 1950 decided to set up a central board to co-ordinate the work of preparing standard Hindi text-books. They also asked that the Central Government should include representatives of regional languages in the body appointed for the compilation of Hindi technical terms. Incidentally, the Committee set up by the Central Government would function at different university centres and would be entrusted with the work of preparing standard Hindi books on various subjects. The Committee would start its work with text-books on pass and honours courses of B.A. and B.Com. examinations.

At Nagpur University text-books for the Intermediate science course in mathematics, physics, chemistry, botany and zoology both in Hindi and Marathi have now been published. Government had given a grant of Rs. 1,30,000 for the purpose and a loan of Rs. 30,000. Text-books for the B.Sc. course which were under preparation would be published in time for the 1952-53 academic year. And for philosophy, history, economics, political science and geography for the B.A. course a scheme for the preparation of books was under consideration.

But in general the students in Madhya Pradesh were not quite satisfied with the general policy. In Nagpur a large number of parents and guardians of students at science colleges asked the University to stay the introduction of Hindi and Marathi as the medium of instruction until the whole question had been decided on an all-India basis, and leave it open to the students to choose English if they so desired.

It was pointed out that the enforcement of the language policy would cause great hardship to such of those students who decide to take an engineering, medical or a technological course after passing the intermediate examination. The technical terminology adopted by the Nagpur University had not been accepted by other Universities or State Governments. The students would also be at a disadvantage at the all-India competitive examinations. There was also protest from students at Sagar University.

Pandit Dubey, the Vice-Chancellor of Nagpur University, however, defended the policy of the University in this respect. He explained that in M.P. the problem was not very difficult because the two regional languages Marathi and Hindi had very little difference. The State had the unique opportunity of conducting an experiment simultaneously in a regional and the national language. The university had accepted the international terminology for technical and scientific terms. Suitable text-books were under preparation ; 14 books dealing with intermediate science courses had already been published in both languages.

Madras State had a difficult task in fitting itself in the new set-up. The Madras Government made Hindi a compulsory subject in the Secondary classes and later reduced it to the status of an optional subject on the ground that it put too heavy a burden on the teachers. The Madras University Syndicate declared itself against a time-limit for the elimination of English as a medium of instruction.

EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS

GENERAL SUMMARY OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS *—1948-49.

Type of Institution	No. of Institutions †		
	For Men	For Women	Total
I.—RECOGNISED—			
Universities	24	..	24
Arts & Science Colleges	398	58	456
Professional & Technical Colleges	178	19	197
Secondary Schools	16,087	2,494	18,581
Primary Schools	1,77,253	13,558	1,90,811
Vocational & Special Schools	14,559	1,658	16,217
Total (Recognised)	2,08,499	17,787	2,26,286
II.—UNRECOGNISED—			
Total	9,927	800	10,727
GRAND TOTAL	2,18,426	15,587	2,37,013

* Excluding Madhya Bharat, figures for which are not available.

† Figures are provisional.

GENERAL SUMMARY OF EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION *—1948-49.

Item	Expenditure on Institutions for men @	Expenditure on Institutions for women @	Total Expenditure @
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
INDIRECT EXPENDITURE	14,00,41,435	1,52,56,297	15,52,97,732
DIRECT EXPENDITURE:			
Universities	2,75,88,184	....	2,75,88,184
Boards of Secondary and Intermediate Education	15,10,456	....	15,10,456
Colleges for General Education	4,71,03,025	31,22,438	5,02,25,463
Colleges for Professional Education	2,80,40,098	17,76,679	2,98,16,777
Secondary Schools	17,35,72,619	3,34,33,765	20,70,06,384
Primary Schools	24,53,63,095	2,73,64,323	27,27,27,418
Schools for Vocational and Special Education	3,39,99,684	56,00,550	3,96,00,234
Total	69,72,18,596	8,65,54,052	78,37,72,648†

* Excluding Madhya Bharat, figures for which are not available.

† Excludes Rs. 3,30,69,855/- for Hyderabad and Rs. 5,00,268/- for Tripura, as the details are not available.

@ Figures are provisional.

PROGRESS OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN INDIA, 1948-49.

(*Note:* Upto March 31st, 1949 Compulsion was not introduced in States not mentioned in this table.)

State	Age Group (s) of Children under compulsion		Number of Areas under compulsion		No. of Institutions where compulsion is in force		No. of students on rolls under compulsion.				Coercive measures or Prosecutions taken during the current year.					
							Urban		Rural		For Non-Enrolment		For Non-Attendance		Fines Realised	
	Urban	Rural	Cities Towns	Villages	Urban	Rural	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
															Rs.	Rs.
Assam	6-11	6-11	10	1,384	275	1,039	11,862	8,712	56,859	35,683	..	..	..	..	..	..
W. Bengal	6-10	..	1*	..	41	..	3,606	..	..	..	Not as certainable from the records.					
Bihar	6-10	6-10	17	1	580	6	48,623	1,892	309	1	111	..	172	..	13	..
Bombay	6-11 & 7-9	6-11 7-8 & 7-9	104	5,267	2,281	9,119	2,45,288	1,68,314	5,51,324	3,64,004	1,067	767	1,373	5,087	1,019	1,216
Madhya Pradesh	6-11 & 7-12	6-11 & 7-12	34†	1,031	232	361	37,026	..	38,591	..	750	1,319	1,609	3,478	533	1,219
Madras	6-12	6-12 & 6-14	32	1,784	1,340	5,805	1,64,731	76,248	4,82,507	3,18,191	No provision in Rules				166	3,062
Orissa	6-12	6-10	1	24	15	9	1,222	1	653	10	..	..	..	..	..	10
Punjab	6-11	6-11	28	1,040	111	1,198	23,005	..	82,214	..	92	1,076	53	533	15	3,782
U.P.	6-11	6-11	89	1,407	1,921	484	2,57,903	8,079	41,230	328	9,507	4,148	8,064	14,232	5,293	9,047
Delhi	6-12	6- 8	1‡	198	39	173	10,532	..	1,615	3,575	..	..	..	..	..	..
Madhya Bharat	..	7-13 (for boys) 7-11 (for girls)	..	60	..	60	..	..	1,951	180	..	..	..	..	..	..
Rajasthan	5-14 & 6-12	6-11 & 6-12	12	35	71	26	6,331	1,562	1,049	..	25	232	122	43	357	..
Bhopal	7-14	..	1	..	19	..	2,284	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Hyderabad	6-8	6-8	7	3	169	9	29,684	..	1,028	..	..	..	..	..	223	..
Jammu and Kashmir	6-11	..	4	..	64	..	6,702	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Mysore	6-10 & 6-12	6-10 & 6-12	36	8,957	362	4,170	31,585	24,887	1,65,354	70,836	10	1,390	765	3,204	12	292
Travancore	5-10	5-10	5	134	123	855	19,335	17,693	1,10,061	94,700	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tripura	6-12	..	1	..	5	..	807	704	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

* Compulsion is in force only in Ward IX of Calcutta Corporation.

‡ Only 13 wards of Delhi City are under compulsion.

† In 11 cities only certain wards are under compulsion.

NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS, 1948-49.

State	Recognised Institutions for		Unrecognised Institutions for		Total No. of Institutions for	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Assam	9,566	1,304	1,712	282	11,278	1,586
West Bengal	17,094	1,575	243	26	17,337	1,601
Bihar	22,349	2,123	1,809	117	24,158	2,240
Bombay	34,686	3,661	172	11	34,858	3,672
Madhya Pradesh	6,939	810	538	36	7,477	846
Madras	38,792	400	149	..	38,941	400
Orissa	10,084	293	1,448	4	11,532	297
Punjab	4,401	1,200	198	96	4,599	1,296
U.P.	29,831	2,874	1,141	16	30,972	2,890
Hyderabad	6,680	1,115	1,063	4	7,743	1,119
Jammu and Kashmir*	1,140	263	not available	not available	1,140	263
Mysore	10,220	743	369	..	10,589	743
PEPSU	963	104	..	..	963	104
Rajasthan*	4,833	474	435	9	5,268	483
Saurashtra	2,107	237	119	12	2,226	249
Travancore-Cochin	4,938	142	..	..	4,938	142
Ajmer	322	95	36	5	358	100
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	20	..	..	..	20	..
Bhopal	195	32	..	..	195	32
Bilaspur	32	1	2	..	34	1
Coorg	122	3	7	..	129	3
Delhi	383	166	67	13	450	179
Himachal Pradesh*	264	13	23	..	287	13
Kutch	276	40	340	154	616	194
Manipur	239	15	40	15	279	30
Tripura	394	14	..	..	394	14
Vindhya Pradesh	1,629	90	16	..	1,645	90
Total†	2,08,499	17,787	9,927	800	2,18,426	18,587

* Figures are provisional.

† Excludes figures for Madhya Bharat as these are not available.

STUDENTS ON ROLLS IN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN INDIA*

1948-49

Type of Education	No. of students on Rolls†		
	Boys	Girls	Total
I. In Recognised Institutions			
General Education			
Primary Stage	1,15,96,038	45,20,760	1,61,16,798
Secondary Stage	34,03,695	6,82,242	40,85,937
Intermediate Stage	1,54,807	19,600	1,74,407
Degree and Higher Stages	72,684	9,743	82,427
Professional and Special Education			
School Education	5,16,005	80,385	5,96,390
Collegiate Education	57,866‡	3,690‡	61,556‡
Total (Recognised) ..	1,58,01,095	53,16,420	2,11,17,515
II. In Unrecognised Institutions — Total ..	3,69,404	76,127	4,45,531
Grand Total	1,61,70,499	53,92,547	2,15,63,046

* Figures are provisional.

† Excluding Madhya Bharat, figures for which are not available.

‡ Includes students studying for Oriental Education.

NUMBER OF STUDENTS ON ROLLS BY STATE, 1948-49.

State	Number of students in Recognised Institutions		Number of students in Unrecognised Institutions		Total Number of students in all Institutions	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Assam*	5,24,299	1,79,553	67,273	22,936	5,91,572	2,02,489
West Bengal	15,04,894	3,54,808	13,095	3,125	15,17,989	3,57,933
Bihar	13,55,234	1,87,213	64,906	7,207	14,20,140	1,94,420
Bombay	25,68,060	11,38,097	7,617	5,279	25,75,677	11,43,376
Madhya Pradesh	6,26,503	1,49,564	24,757	6,128	6,51,260	1,55,692
Madras	29,06,465	15,49,648	5,100	905	29,11,565	15,50,553
Orissa	4,10,679	1,02,732	28,786	7,017	4,39,465	1,09,749
Punjab	5,85,907	1,34,737	9,370	7,788	5,95,277	1,42,525
U. P.*	24,00,455	3,56,098	46,689	2,405	24,47,144	3,58,503
Hyderabad	4,72,746	1,21,010	33,593	443	5,06,339	1,21,453
Jammu and Kashmir	70,878	19,454	not available	not available	70,878	19,454
Mysore	5,49,256	2,30,932	5,498	1,070	5,54,754	2,32,002
PEPSU	84,949	11,110	..	..	84,949	11,110
Rajasthan*	3,42,359	35,523	14,584	664	3,56,943	36,187
Saurashtra	1,78,187	47,889	8,554	336	1,86,741	48,225
Travancore-Cochin	9,00,038	6,28,671	17,617	..	9,17,655	6,28,671
Ajmer	32,371	10,714	1,968	515	34,339	11,229
Andaman and Nicobar Islands ..	1,153	467	..	..	1,153	467
Bhopal	11,898	1,951	..	..	11,898	1,951
Bilaspur	4,304	237	61	..	4,365	237
Coorg	13,094	7,630	101	257	13,195	7,887
Delhi	82,389	33,059	5,268	2,319	87,657	35,378
Himachal Pradesh*	18,574	1,658	603	..	19,177	1,658
Kutch	16,436	3,410	11,993	7,307	28,429	10,717
Manipur	24,675	1,105	1,500	400	26,175	1,505
Tripura	22,184	3,370	..	..	22,184	3,370
Vindhya Pradesh	93,108	5,780	471	26	93,579	5,806
Total† ..	1,58,01,095	53,16,420	3,69,404	76,127	1,61,70,499	53,95,547

* Figures are provisional.

† Excludes figures adhya Bharat as these are not available.

EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION BY SOURCES, 1948-49.

State	Expenditure met from				
	Government Funds	Local Board Funds	Fees	Endowments	Total Expenditure
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Assam†	75,33,088	12,52,409	29,72,909	15,88,975	1,33,47,381
West Bengal	2,67,02,542	64,45,580	2,79,33,698	90,99,257	7,01,81,077
Bihar	1,26,20,414	1,40,21,114	1,20,87,046	70,97,461	4,58,26,035
Bombay	9,99,39,326	2,08,70,613	3,73,29,633	1,72,63,859	17,54,03,431
Madhya Pradesh†	2,46,25,008	62,20,937	66,11,578	38,52,405	4,13,09,928
Madras†	8,62,61,903	2,76,49,262	3,24,75,444	2,11,74,942	16,75,61,551
Orissa	1,29,77,718	6,29,596	20,49,731	24,80,590	1,81,37,635
Punjab	1,82,74,098	52,56,263	1,06,21,088	43,43,501	3,84,94,959
U. P.†	5,05,04,986	1,13,43,263	2,92,45,217	1,89,87,674	11,00,81,140
Hyderabad	2,85,80,360	7,09,723	8,42,816	29,36,956	3,30,69,855
Jammu and Kashmir†	..	..	..	..	24,64,679*
Mysore	2,37,82,451	2,71,060	28,66,370	9,67,530	2,78,87,411
PEPSU†	30,89,751	15,840	4,36,751	1,20,422	36,62,764
Rajasthan†	..	..	..	..	1,51,50,118*
Saurashtra	65,46,623	..	7,12,858	5,23,047	77,82,528
Travancore-Cochin	1,72,16,028	..	57,26,874	19,00,357	2,48,43,259
Ajmer	23,48,285	2,04,832	6,30,004	4,31,925	36,15,046
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	95,029	..	2,004	..	97,033
Bhopal	..	..	..	..	6,35,839*
Bilaspur	1,17,874	..	..	..	1,17,874
Coorg	4,34,821	1,89,062	1,43,492	17,509	7,84,884
Delhi	68,16,223	14,73,835	25,17,134	17,25,766	1,25,32,958
Himachal Pradesh†	..	..	..	..	5,92,765*
Kutch	5,28,335	..	38,092	1,57,553	7,23,980
Manipur	5,25,717	809	12,869	10,904	5,50,299
Tripura	..	..	..	..	5,00,268*
Vindhya Pradesh	19,80,307	..	3,751	4,025	19,88,083
Total‡	43,15,00,887	9,65,54,198	17,52,59,359	9,46,84,658	81,73,42,771

* Separate figures by sources are not available.
† Figures are provisional.
‡ Excludes figures for Madhya Bharat as these are not available.

RECOGNISED PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS, NUMBER AND ENROLMENT, 1948-49.

State	Primary Schools				Secondary Schools			
	School for Boys		School for Girls		School for Boys		School for Girls	
	Number	Enrolment	Number	Enrolment	Number	Enrolment	Number	Enrolment
Assam	8,046	4,52,800	1,098	53,211	883	1,48,723	126	21,284
West Bengal	13,564	11,02,763	1,217	86,372	1,874	4,79,096	301	73,476
Bihar	19,633	9,98,194	1,971	71,002	2,127	4,05,800	125	25,828
Bombay	26,437	26,09,983	2,335	4,26,002	1,307	3,27,159	193	46,763
Madhya Pradesh	5,852	4,92,524	627	57,768	1,001	1,91,451	170	19,181
Madras	37,217	38,18,347	..	..	926	4,63,234	237	71,923
Orissa	8,974	3,99,651	244	12,059	546	76,310	41	5,264
Punjab	2,902	2,23,431	1,051	84,741	1,389	3,46,382	123	38,418
U. P.*	25,012	19,12,097	2,194	1,20,076	2,446	4,70,221	593	1,11,757
Hyderabad	6,005	3,72,837†	1,023	1,09,507†	238	74,313‡	67	9,949‡
Jammu and Kashmir*	975	42,131†	215	11,589†	147	26,468‡	47	7,697‡
Mysore	9,182	5,26,998	584	60,541	721	1,36,999	146	28,213
PEPSU	689	29,138	76	4,849	263	53,931	25	5,997
Rajasthan*	3,731	2,08,417	337	21,011	622	1,17,425	91	11,522
Saurashtra	1,983	1,43,988	219	37,498	115	36,927	17	5,807
Travancore-Cochin	3,811	11,64,195	..	..	949	2,83,794	102	48,326
Ajmer	257	21,068	77	6,090	51	11,118	15	1,119
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	19	843	..	..	1	777	..	..
Bhopal	172	7,148	29	1,197	14	4,194	3	717
Bilaspur	26	2,803	..	..	5	1,544	1	180
Coorg	93	7,774	1	42	27	11,629	2	1,239
Delhi	260	36,119	117	16,973	100	40,887	41	14,412
Himachal Pradesh*	212	8,697	5	111	49	9,764	7	1,554
Kutch	199	12,196	40	2,419	63	4,844	..	..
Manipur	220	19,881	14	885	18	4,444	1	220
Tripura	361	17,483	7	305	29	6,041	7	916
Vindhya Pradesh	1,421	65,925	77	3,422	176	26,311	13	1,817
Total §	1,77,253	1,46,97,431	13,558	11,87,670	16,087	37,59,786	2,494	5,53,579

* Figures are provisional.
† Represents the number in Primary Stage of both boys' and girls' Schools.
‡ Represents the number in Secondary Stage of both boys' and girls' Schools.
§ Excludes figures for Madhya Bharat which are not available.

RECOGNISED COLLEGES (ARTS & SCIENCE) & UNIVERSITIES—NUMBER AND ENROLMENT, 1948-49.

(Note: This table excludes schools for Oriental Education.)

State		No. of Intermediate Colleges	No. of Degree Colleges	No. of Universities	No. of Students in Inter. Stage	No. of students in Degree & Higher Stages	No. of passes in Matriculation & Equivalent Examinations	No. of passes in B.A. & B.Sc. (Pass & Hons.) Examinations
Assam	(Boys)	7	7	1	4,351	1,196	2,102	221
	(Girls)	..	3	..	571	172	290	43
W. Bengal	(B)	24	36	1	27,631	11,660	19,355	1,920
	(G)	3	11	..	3,333	1,923	2,303	478
Bihar	(B)	7	18	1	12,179	5,296	12,317	1,187
	(G)	1	2	..	411	185	544	27
Bombay	(B)	..	39	2	17,083	10,365‡	21,076§	3,481§
	(G)	..	2	..	3,483	2,670‡	4,494	927
Madhya Pradesh	(B)	..	16	2	3,174	1,989	4,068	999
	(G)	..	1	..	499	318	578	194
Madras	(B)	10	65	3	25,411	10,739	60,922	4,017
	(G)	5	8	..	2,813	1,338	6,979	692
Orissa	(B)	5	11	1	3,199	1,212	2,814	424
	(G)	..	1	..	189	72	136	12
Punjab	(B)	..	32	1	11,836	7,786	16,286	2,007
	(G)	..	4	..	958	640	1,665	292
U.P.*	(B)	3	22	6	22,424	13,027	31,822	4,079
	(G)	..	2	..	1,975	1,103	2,891	531
Hyderabad	(B)	8	..	1	3,313	1,324	2,695	350
	(G)	..	1	..	328	133	277	51
Jammu and Kashmir	(B)	2	6**	1	1,401	847	986	276
	(G)	..	1	..	113	52	not available	not available
Mysore	(B)	17	5	1	6,609	2,223	6,217	650
	(G)	..	3	..	1,036	444	1,069	128
PEPSU	(B)	2	6	..	1,131	592	3,294	127
	(G)	2	..	..	177	24	167	..
Rajasthan*	(B)	5	9	1	2,257†	1,100	2,474	311
	(G)	2	..	..	307	37	116	16
Saurashtra	(B)	..	3	..	896	432	1,011	183
	(G)	..	..	..	70	52	69	15
Travancore–Cochin	(B)	5	12	1	8,926††	..	6,584	854
	(G)	1	2	..	2,978††	..	3,197	327
Ajmer	(B)	2	1	..	535	262	462	64
	(G)	2	..	..	70	20	52	2
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	(B)	..	..	..	..	..	14	..
	(G)	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bhopal	(B)	..	2	..	176	41	98	..
	(G)	..	..	..	27	10	23	..
Bilaspur	(B)	..	..	..	..	..	35	..
	(G)	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Coorg	(B)	..	..	..	..	..	99	..
	(G)	..	..	..	..	..	31	..
Delhi	(B)	..	6	1	1,128	2,522	225¶	284
	(G)	..	1	..	220	544	64	61
Himachal Pradesh	(B)	..	1	..	64	18	137	..
	(G)	..	..	..	2	..	..	..
Kutch	(B)	..	..	..	..	..	76	..
	(G)	..	..	..	..	..	6	..
Manipur	(B)	1	..	..	350	..	68	..
	(G)	..	..	..	..	..	2	..
Tripura	(B)	..	1	..	693	53	165	39
	(G)	..	..	..	39	6	21	3
Vindhya Pradesh	(B)	2	..	..	40	..	414	..
	(G)	..	..	..	1	..	18	..
Total	(B)	100	298	24	1,54,807	72,684	1,95,816	21,473
	(G)	16	42	..	19,600	9,743	24,992	3,799

* Figures are provisional.

** Includes 4 Oriental Colleges for men.

† Includes students in degree classes in colleges in the former Union of Matsya.

†† Includes students in Degree and Higher Stages.

‡ Includes students of Intermediate Classes in the former State of Baroda.

§ Includes girl students from the former State of Baroda.

¶ Excludes 713 boys and 129 girls passing Higher Secondary Examinations.

NO. OF STUDENTS IN RECOGNISED SCHOOLS FOR GENERAL EDUCATION BY STAGES, 1948-49.

State	Number of Students in			
	Primary Stage		Secondary Stage	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Assam	4,07,621	1,59,422	92,596	16,658
West Bengal	10,71,384	3,03,415	3,27,235	39,773
Bihar	10,59,688	1,73,764	2,55,621	11,751
Bombay	17,31,116	9,26,977	5,86,444*	1,65,370*
Madhya Pradesh	4,96,894	1,31,184	1,16,900	15,946
Madras	22,73,453	13,98,027	5,49,360	1,32,664
Orissa	3,47,202	98,741	44,621	2,720
Punjab	3,63,881	1,18,808	1,98,270	12,013
U. P. †	18,33,663	3,16,299	4,31,036	32,623
Hyderabad	3,72,837	1,09,507	74,313	9,949
Jammu and Kashmir†	42,131‡	11,589‡	26,468§	7,697§
Mysore	3,76,341	1,88,751	1,49,521	38,138
PEPSU	48,566	9,348	34,503	1,498
Rajasthan†	2,72,812	30,135	53,531	3,579
Saurashtra	1,34,243	39,860	42,300	7,817
Travancore-Cochin	5,27,627	4,48,675	3,47,478¶	1,72,535¶
Ajmer	20,719	8,907	10,278	1,637
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	914	375	239	92
Bhopal	10,067	1,778	1,275	136
Bilaspur	3,667	207	623	30
Coorg	9,406	6,302	3,605	1,301
Delhi	49,100	25,677	27,533	6,081
Himachal Pradesh†	14,715	1,106	3,720	539
Kutch	11,795	3,127	4,262	275
Manipur	20,907	951	3,418	154
Tripura	16,948	2,803	4,472	522
Vindhya Pradesh	78,341	5,025	14,073	744
Total ..	1,15,96,038	45,20,760	34,03,695	6,82,242

* Includes Students of Primary Stage for Kolhapur.
† Figures are provisional.
‡ Figures relate to Primary Schools.
§ Figures relate to Secondary Schools.
¶ Includes scholars reading in Primary Stage in Cochin.

PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL COLLEGES (OTHER THAN TRAINING)—NUMBER AND ENROLMENT.

State	Engineering and Technology		Medicine & Veterinary				Agriculture and Forestry		Commerce		Law	
			Number of Colleges		No. of students on rolls*							
	No. of Colleges	No. of Students on rolls*	For Men	For Women	Men	Women	No. of Colleges	No. of Students *	No. of Colleges	No. of Students on rolls*	No. of Colleges	No. of Students on rolls*
Assam	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	84	1	93
West Bengal	2	2,433	7	..	2,703	130	..	..	13	6,683	2	1,243
Bihar	1	218	3	..	963	52	1	89	..	..	2	752
Bombay	6	1,266	8	..	1,874	411	3	981	7	4,499	6	1,471
Madhya Pradesh	2	251	2	..	267	32	2	265	4	1,141	4	555
Madras	5	1,831	6	1	1,981	572	3	671	..	..	2	954
Orissa	..	..	1	..	156	26	..	..	..	..	..	164
Punjab	1	208	2	1	479	319	1	147	1	106	1	84
U.P.	..	1,362	1	..	1,176	119	5	2,180	..	5,271	..	1,745
Hyderabad	1	330	2	..	343	61	1	110	..	141	..	275
Jammu and Kashmir	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Mysore	3	1,385	1	..	216	50	1	122	1	585	1	211
PEPSU	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	9	..	..
Rajasthan†	..	..	1	..	20	..	..	..	..	264	..	296
Saurashtra	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Travancore-Cochin	2	502	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	100	1	274
Ajmer	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Andaman and Nicobar Islands ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bhopal	..	..	1	..	19	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bilaspur	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Coorg	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Delhi	1	17	..	2	..	278	3	230	..	..	..	485
Himachal Pradesh	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Kutch	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Manipur	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tripura	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Vindhya Pradesh	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Panth Piploda §	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total‡ ..	24	9,803	35	4	10,197	2,050	20	4,795	27	18,883	20	8,602

* Includes enrolment in classes attached to Arts and Science Colleges and in University Departments.
† Figures are provisional.
‡ Excludes figures for Madhya Bharat as these are not available.
§ Now in Madhya Bharat.

VOCATIONAL (OTHER THAN TRAINING) AND SPECIAL SCHOOLS—NUMBER AND ENROLMENT, 1948-49.

State	Engineering Technical and Industrial		Medicine				Commerce		For the Handicapped		For Adults		Other Schools	
	No. of Schools	No. of Students on rolls*	No. of Schools		No. of Students on rolls*		No. of Schools	No. of Students on rolls*	No. of Schools	No. of Students on rolls*	No. of Schools	No. of Students on rolls*	No of Schools	No. of Students on rolls*
			For Men	For Women	Men	Women								
Assam†	16	792	..	..	..	..	3	334	..	..	528	15,814	124	2,860
W. Bengal	77	4,361	4	..	1,299	..	8	1,144	8	395	420	12,504	1,035	38,724
Bihar	44	3,172	..	..	118	10	14	931	4	131	..	..	434	14,589
Bombay	137	11,159	12	..	673	162	44	3,734	12	457	7,385	2,02,628	310	22,440
Madhya Pradesh	17	1,046	1	..	111	9	..	..	3	81	6	548	14	1,560
Madras	76	5,813	1	..	405	52	256	12,142	14	835	10	400	171	15,645
Orissa	31	1,764	..	..	..	..	3	44	1	5	328	7,765	159	4,287
Punjab	32	2,539	1	..	155	..	4	36	1	42	39	1,134	1	98
U.P.†	107	3,800	1	..	75	..	1	35	9	185	1,860	61,062	314	12,917
Hyderabad	1	184	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	63	193	4,984	242	14,599
Jammu & Kashmir†	2	N. A.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Mysore	18	2,341	1	..	218	73	37	2,538	2	104	83	1,679	143	5,721
PEPSU	2	171	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Rajasthan†	4	537	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	20	285	5,703	204	6,570
Saurashtra	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5	226
Travancore-Cochin	35	6,722	..	..	..	..	31	2,587	1	15	3	129	82	7,732
Ajmer	1	66	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	5	1	20	4	195
Andaman & Nicobar Islands	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bhopal	1	83	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bilaspur	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	113
Coorg	..	11	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	14	..	..
Delhi	4	1,163	..	1	..	23	..	..	..	..	2	40	..	..
Himachal Pradesh	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	73	7	28	..	..
Kutch	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Manipur	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	10	249	3	119
Tripura	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Vindhya Pradesh	2	30	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3	18
Total‡	607	45,754	21	1	3,054	329	401	23,525	59	2,421	11,161	3,14,701	3,278	1,48,916

* Includes enrolment in classes attached to Schools for General Education.
† Figures are provisional.
‡ Excludes figures for Madhya Bharat as those are not available.

NUMBER OF TEACHERS IN RECOGNISED SCHOOLS FOR GENERAL EDUCATION, 1948-49.

State	Number of Teachers			
	In Primary Schools		In Secondary Schools	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Assam	11,377	1,404	5,403	753
West Bengal	37,606	1,640	17,619	2,466
Bihar	34,237	2,350	15,502	1,099
Bombay	66,454	14,200	14,361	3,051
Madhya Pradesh*	15,259	1,990	8,182	1,099
Madras	98,224	28,309	18,407	3,848
Orissa	15,222	288	3,914	244
Punjab	5,838	2,214	10,635	1,323
U. P.	51,659	3,683	21,208	5,433
Hyderabad	13,697	2,143	5,223	1,401
Jammu and Kashmir*	3,151†	..	1,106†	..
Mysore	16,047	2,298	4,945	1,072
PEPSU	944	110	2,075	209
Rajasthan*	5,930	734	7,379	753
Saurashtra	4,892	1,235	762	188
Travancore-Cochin	20,897‡	1,610	10,688	1,357
Ajmer	703	247	624	156
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	31	13	13	1
Bhopal	304	57	202	44
Bilaspur	57	4	37	7
Coorg	171	24	270	78
Delhi	996	485	1,488	550
Himachal Pradesh*	264	4	356	62
Kutch	399	82	190	..
Manipur	473	72	157	12
Tripura	678	21	327	27
Vindhya Pradesh	2,322	129	1,321	100
Total §	4,07,832	65,346	1,52,394	25,333

* Figures are provisional.
† Includes women teachers also.
‡ Includes women teachers in the former state of Travancore.
§ Excludes figures for Madhya Bharat which are not available.

TRAINING INSTITUTIONS—NUMBER AND ENROLMENT, 1948-49.

State	Training Colleges				Training Schools			
	No. of Institutions for		No. of students under Training*		No. of Institutions for		No. of students under Training †	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Assam	..	..	28	8	24	3	1,178	74
West Bengal	3	1	179	145	48	10	1,203	302
Bihar	1	..	72	12	73	10	2,056	387
Bombay	9	..	472	152	59	35	7,457	2,813
Madhya Pradesh	2	1	260	256	14	7	1,986	795
Madras	3	4	295	195	81	88	13,296	7,221
Orissa	1	..	25	6	26	4	967	79
Punjab	1	3	85	158	5	5	533	276
U. P.‡	24	6	2,023	405	72	27	10,274	856
Hyderabad	1	..	40	18	8	2	666	238
Jammu and Kashmir	1	..	34	..	6	..	not available	..
Mysore	1	..	68	15	7	5	922	260
PEPSU	..	..	..	..	1	..	40	..
Rajasthan‡	2	..	55	1	9	3	586	32
Saurashtra	..	..	..	..	1	1	90	90
Travancore-Cochin	1	..	90	56	35	6	1,159	995
Ajmer	1	..	56	6	3	1	225	74
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bhopal	..	..	..	..	1	..	18	..
Bilaspur	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Coorg	..	..	..	..	..	..	45	14
Delhi	1	..	57	24	1	2	144	121
Himachal Pradesh‡	..	..	..	..	2	1	57	11
Kutch	..	..	..	..	1	..	11	8
Manipur	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tripura	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Vindhya Pradesh	..	..	..	..	2	..	131	..
Total §	52	15	3,839	1,457	479	210	43,044	14,646

* Includes students under training in training classes attached to Arts and Science Colleges and in University Departments.
† Includes students under training in classes attached to Secondary Schools.
‡ Figures are provisional.
§ Excludes figures for Madhya Bharat which are not available.

SCALES OF PAY

Here are tables of scales of pay sanctioned in Government Schools by the Central Government :

PRIMARY SCHOOLS

Post.	Prescribed Scale.	Minimum qualifications.	Remarks.
Headmaster	Grade Pay plus S. P. Rs. 15.	Matric Trained. *	Future Minimum from 1st April, 1950.
Teachers.	68-4-120-E.B.-5-170.	Matric Trained.	Future Minimum from 1st April, 1950.
	68-4-120-E.B.-5-170.	Middle S. V. & V.T.C. if in Ajmer.	Temporary relaxation for existing employees.
	55-3-85-E.B.-4-125-5-130	Untrained Matric Middle J. Vs.	
	50-2-60-3-90.	Lower than Middle J. Vs.	
	35-1-40-2-60.	No untrained.	Future Minimum from 1st April, 1950.

MIDDLE SCHOOLS

Post.	Proposed Scale.	Minimum qualifications.	Remarks.
1	2	3	4
	—	(No decision yet).	
Non-Language teachers and English teachers	100-5-150-E.B.-8-190-10-250.	Trained (J.A.V., S.A.V., or B.T.) graduate teachers.	Future Minimum from 1st April, 1950.
		Untrained graduate teachers with 5 years experience.	
		Intermediate plus S.A.V.	Temporary relaxation for existing employees.
	80-5-120-E.B.-8-200-10/2-220.	Untrained graduate teachers with less than 5 years experience.	—do—
	68-4-120-E.B.-5-170.	Matric plus S. V. or J.A.V. of V.T.C. of Ajmer	—do—
	68-4-120-E.B.-5-170.	Middle S.V. (or V.T.C. in Ajmer).	
Headmaster	Grade pay plus S. P. Rs. 40/- for classes 1-8 Grade pay plus S. P. Rs. 25/- for classes 6-8	Trained graduate.	Future minimum from 1st April, 1950.

*Non-Matric J. V. H. Ms. who held their posts as Headmasters Substantively on the date of election of the revised scales will also as a special grade be given the scale of pay of Rs. 68-4-120-E.B.-5-170 as personal to them.

MIDDLE SCHOOLS—*contd.*

Post.	Proposed Scale.	Minimum qualifications.	Remarks.
1	2	3	4
Language teachers (Other than English).	80-5-120-E.B.-8-200-10/2-220.	Shastri or its equivalent or a corresponding examination in the Modern Indian Language concerned, with either *a)* Matric (Full) *or* *b)* Intermediate (English) *or* *c)* O. T. *and* Matric (Eng.).	This will be the minimum from 1st April, 1950.
	68-4-120-E.B.-5-170.	Rest with lower qualifications.	Temporary relaxation for existing employees.
Drawing Masters.	80-5-120-E.B.-8-200-10/2-220.	Matric plus 2 years regular course of training.	This will be the minimum from 1st April, 1950.
	68-4-120-E.B.-5-170.	All the rest, less qualified.	Temporary relaxation for existing employees.
Physical Training Instructor.	80-5-120-E.B.-8-200-10/2-220.	Matric plus 2 years training in recognised institution.	Future minimum from 1st April, 1950.
	68-4-120-E.B.-5-170.	For less qualified people.	Temporary relaxation for existing employees.
Domestic Science Teachers.	80-5-120-E.B.-8-200-10/2-220.	Matric plus Home Science Diploma of Lady Irwin College (or equivalent).	Minimum from 1st April, 1950.
	68-4-120-E.B.-5-170.	Rest less qualified.	Temporary relaxation for existing employees.

HIGH SCHOOLS

Post.	Proposed Scale.	Minimum Qualifications.	Remarks.
Headmaster.	250-10-300-20-400-E.B.-20-500.	B.A. or B.Sc. & B.T.	
Teachers of English, Mathematics, History, Economics, Physics & Chemistry, Agriculture, Commerce & Demonstrators.	*i)* 120-8-200-E.B.-10-300.	*a)* Trained Graduates (B.A. or B.Sc. & B.T.) *b)* Untrained Graduates with 5 years experience. *c)* B.A. or B.Sc. and C.T. obtained from Ajmer before 1935.	This will be the future minimum operative from 1-4-50. The No. of these posts should be fixed for each school.
	ii) 80-5-120-E.B.-8-200-10/2-220.	*a)* Untrained graduates with less than 5 years experience. *b)* Inter S.A.V.	This is a temporary relaxation for existing teachers if they cannot be replaced.
	iii) 68-4-120-E.B.-5-170.	For all possessing qualifications lower than at (*ii*) above.	Temporary relaxation for existing irreplaceable teachers.
Language Teachers (other than English).	120-8-200-E.B.-10-300.	A degree with either Shastri or its equivalent or a corresponding examination in the Modern Indian Language concerned.	This will be the minimum from 1-4-50.
	100-5-150-E.B.-8-190-10-250.	Intermediate (Full) with Shastri or its equivalent or a corresponding examination in the Modern Indian Language.	Temporary relaxation for existing employees.
	80-5-120-E.B.-8-200-10/2-220.	Shastri or its equivalent or a corresponding examination in a Modern Indian Language with either *a)* Inter (English) *or* *b)* Matric (Full) *or* *c)* O. T. and Matric (English)	—do—
	68-4-120-E.B.-5-170.	All the rest with lower qualifications.	—do—
Drawing Masters.	*i)* 120-8-200-E.B.-10-300.	Degree with 2 years training in recognized institutions.	Future minimum from 1-4-50.
	ii) 100-5-150-E.B.-8-190-10-250.	Matric plus not less than 4 years regular course of training.	Temporary relaxation for existing teachers.
	iii) 80-5-120-E.B.-8-200-10/2-220.	Matric plus 2 years regular training.	
	iv) 68-4-120-E.B.-5-170.	Rest with qualifications lower than above.	
P.T. Instructors.	*i)* 120-8-200-E.B.-10-300.	B.A. plus Dip. (P.T.).	Future minimum from 1-4-50.
	ii) 100-5-150-E.B.-8-190-10-250.	Inter plus Diploma.	
	iii) 80-5-120-E.B.-8-200-10/2-220.	Matric plus Diploma.	Temporary relaxation for existing employees.
	iv) 68-4-120-E.B.-5-170.	Rest with lower qualifications.	
Domestic Science Teachers.	120-8-200-E.B.-10-300.	Graduate with Diploma in Domestic Science.	Future minimum from 1-4-50.
	100-5-150-E.B.-8-190-10-250.	Inter or Delhi High Secondary Certificate plus 3 years teachers training Diploma of Lady Irwin College or equivalent.	Temporary relaxation for existing teachers.
	80-5-120-E.B.-8-200-10/2-220.	Matric plus Home Science Diploma of Lady Irwin College or equivalent.	Temporary relaxation for existing employees.
Music Teachers.		Will be prescribed later.	

HIGHER SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Post.	Proposed Scale.	Minimum qualifications.	Remarks.
1	2	3	4
Principal.	350-25-500-E.B.-30-590.	As prescribed by the Board of Higher Secondary Education, Delhi.	
Teachers of English, Mathematics, History, Economics, Physics, Chemistry, Geography, Agriculture and Commerce.	200-10-250-15-325-E.B.-15-400.	M.A. or M.Sc. & B.T. M.A. with 3 years college experience. M.A. with 7 years school experience. Teachers with B.A. (Hons.) and 8 years teaching experience, if exempted by Board of Higher Secondary Education.	
		Teachers with B.A. and 12 years teaching experience, if exempted by the Board of Higher Secondary Education.	
Demonstrators.	120-8-200-E.B.-10-300.	B.Sc., B.T. or B.Sc. with 5 years experience.	Future minimum from 1st April 1950.
	80-5-120-E.B.-8-200-10/2-220.	B.Sc., untrained.	
Teachers of Classical and Indian Languages.	200-10-250-15-325-E.B.-15-400.	M.A. in subject plus B.T. M.A. in subject with 3 years experience in college classes or 7 years experience in schools.	
	120-8-200-E.B.-10-300.	A degree of an Indian University with Shastri or its equivalent or a corresponding examination in the modern Indian Language concerned.	Future minimum from 1st April 1950.
	100-5-150-E.B.-8-190-10-250.	Intermediate (Full) with Shastri or its equivalent or a corresponding examination in the modern Indian Language concerned.	Temporary relaxation for existing employees.
	80-5-120-E.B.-8-200-10/2-220.	Shastri or its equivalent or a corresponding examination in Modern Indian Language with either (*a*) Inter (English) *or* (*b*) Matric (Full) *or* (*c*) O.T. and Matric (English).	
Drawing Teachers.	120-8-200-E.B.-10-300.	Degree with 2 years training in recognised institution.	Minimum from 1st April 1950.
	100-5-150-E.B.-8-190-10-250.	Matric with not less than 4 years regular course of training.	Temporary relaxation for existing employees.
	80-5-120-E.B.-8-200-10/2-220.	Matric with 2 years regular course of training.	
Physical Training Instructor.	120-8-200-E.B.-10-300.	B.A. with diploma in Physical Training.	Future minimum from 1st April 1950.
	100-5-150-E.B.-8-190-10-250.	Intermediate with Diploma in Physical Training.	Temporary relaxation for existing employees.
	80-5-120-E.B.-8-200-10/2-220.	Matric with Diploma in Physical Training.	
	68-4-120-E.B.-5-170.	Rest with lower qualifications.	
Music Teachers.		Will be prescribed later.	
Domestic Science Teachers.	120-8-200-E.B.-10-300.	Graduate with diploma in Domestic Science.	Will be the minimum from 1st April 1950.
	100-5-150-E.B.-8-190-10-250.	Intermediate or Delhi Higher Secondary Certificate plus 3 years Teachers Training Diploma of Lady Irwin College or equivalent.	Temporary relaxation for existing employees.
	80-5-120-E.B.-8-200-10/2-220.	Matric plus Home Science Diploma of Lady Irwin College or equivalent.	
Physiology and Hygiene Teachers.	200-10-250-15-325-E.B.-15-400.	M.Sc. in Zoology and B.T. M.Sc. with 3 years college experience. M.Sc. with 7 years High School experience.	
	Rs. 200 fixed.	A graduate in Medicine. 1st Class M.Sc. if he undertakes to go for training within first 3 years.	
Clerks.	80-5-120-E.B.-8-200-10/2-220. 55-3-85-E.B.-4-125-5-130.	For 1st Clerk (should be graduate). For other clerks (should be matric).	

HISTORICAL SKETCH

Having surveyed the present position we can next pass on to a brief sketch of the history of Indian education.

Indian education is in fact unintelligible except through its history. The structure is top heavy. The lower classes are largely illiterate while the middle classes who constitute the bulk of the *intelligentsia* are in point of number at least educated to a pitch equal to that of countries whose economic conditions are more highly developed. As might be expected from this abnormal distribution of education, the form which it has eventually assumed contains corresponding defects. In recent years, however, strenuous efforts have been made to remedy these defects. Primary Education Acts have been passed in several States in favour of the expansion of primary education among the masses. On the other hand, the numbers of students in colleges and universities have grown apace. The volume of educated unemployment at one time reached alarming proportions, and is still serious.

WESTERN LEARNING

In the early days of its dominion in India, the East India Company had little inclination for the doubtful experiment of introducing western learning into India. Warren Hastings, the dominating figure of the time, was a genuine admirer of the laws and literature of the East. His policy was to enable the ancient learning to revive and flourish under the protection of a stable government, and to interfere as little as possible with the habits and customs of the people; he did not touch mass education.

Sources other than Government played an important part in encouraging the desire for western knowledge in India. In 1816, David Hare, an English watchmaker in Calcutta, joined hands with the great Indian reformer, Raja Ram Mohan Roy, to institute the Hindu College for the promotion of western secular learning. Fifteen years later, the Committee of Public Instruction in Bengal reported that a taste for English had been widely disseminated and that independent schools, conducted by young men reared in the Hindu College, were springing up in every direction. A still more remarkable innovation was made in 1835 by the establishment of the Calcutta Medical College, whose object was to teach "the principles and practice of medical science in strict accordance with the mode adopted in Europe." Many pronounced the failure of the undertaking to be inevitable; for, under the Hindu custom the higher castes were forbidden to touch the dead. This obstacle was surmounted by Madhusudan Gupta who, with a few courageous pupils, began the dissection of the human body.

The Missionaries.—Another impetus to the introduction of western learning was the devotion of Christian missionaries. Carey, Marshman and Ward opened the first missionary College at Serampore in 1818; and twelve years later, Alexander Duff reversed the whole trend of missionary policy in India by his insistence on teaching rather than preaching and by founding his school and College in Calcutta.

Lord William Bentinck's minute of 1835 (based upon Macaulay's famous minute) marks a somewhat tardy acceptance by Government of the new policy. Government then determined while observing neutrality in religious matters to devote its available funds to the maintenance of secondary schools and colleges of Western learning, to be taught through the medium of English. But this decision did not entail that Oriental learning should be neglected; still less that the development of the vernacular should be discouraged. Other changes powerfully contributed to the success of the new system. The freedom of the Press was established in 1835; English was substituted for Persian as the language of the Courts in 1837; and in 1844 Sir Henry Hardinge ordained that preference in Government appointments should be given to those who had received western education. In the following decade the new learning took firm root in India; and, though the Muslims still held aloof, the demand for English schools outstripped the means of Government for providing them. Later there was also a marked appreciation among Muslim leaders of the need for improving the instructional level of their co-religionists; in many of the States of India a great impulse towards educational advance among the Muslim community became noticeable. The Muslim University at Aligarh and the Osmania University of Hyderabad, Deccan, were the final fruit of the urge for higher education felt by the leaders of the Muslim community.

To Missionary Societies is due the initiative in the modern education of women, strongly supported by Hare and Ram Mohan Roy. The establishment of a Girls' school in Calcutta in 1849, by Drinkwater Bethune is a landmark in the history of female education in India.

WOOD'S DESPATCH

An epoch in Indian educational history is marked by Sir Charles Wood's despatch in 1854. Perhaps its most notable feature was the emphasis which it laid on the importance of primary education. The old idea that the education imparted to the higher classes of society would filter down to the lower classes was discarded. The new policy was boldly "to combat the ignorance of the people which may be considered the greatest curse of the country." For this purpose Departments of Public Instruction were created on lines which do not differ very materially from the Departments of the present day. The despatch also broke away from the practice followed since 1835, whereby most of the available public funds had been expended upon a few Government schools and colleges, and instituted a policy of grants-in-aid to private institutions. It emphasised the importance of encouraging the study of the vernaculars as the only possible media for mass education.

Another feature of the despatch was an outline of a university system which resulted in the foundation of the Universities of Calcutta, and of Madras and Bombay three years later. The affiliating type of university then became the pivot of the Indian education system. It has undoubtedly been of value in several ways. It enabled Government to select recruits for its service on an impartial basis; it did much, through the agency of its colleges to develop backward places; it accelerated the conversion of Indians to a zeal for western education; and it cost little at a time when money was scarce. On the other hand, the new universities were not corporations of scholars, but corporations of administrators; they did not deal directly with the training of men, but with the examination of candidates; they were not concerned with learning, except in so far as learning can be tested by examination. The colleges were fettered by examination requirements and by uniform courses; their teachers were denied that freedom which teachers should enjoy and their students were encouraged not to value training for its own sake but as a means for obtaining marketable qualifications.

In certain important respects the recommendation in the despatch were not followed. It did not intend that university tests, as such should become the sole tests qualifying for public posts; it also recommended the institution of civil service examinations. It did not desire the universities to be deprived of all teaching functions; it recommended the establishment of university chairs for advanced study. It showed awareness of the dangers of a purely literary course of instruction; it hoped that the system of education would rouse the people of India to develop the vast resources of their country.

The encouragement of the grants-in-aid system was advocated to an even greater extent by the Education Commission of 1882, which favoured the policy of withdrawing higher education from the control of Government within certain limits and of stimulating private effort. In theory the decision was correct, but in practice it was irretrievably wrong. In its fatal desire to save money, Government deliberately accepted the mistaken belief that schools and colleges could be maintained on the low fees which the Indian parent could be expected to pay. And, in course of time, an unworkable system of dual control grew up, whereby the Universities with no funds at their disposal were entrusted with the duty of granting recognition to schools and the Departments of Public Instruction were encouraged to cast a blind eye on the private institutions and to be content with the development of a few favoured Government institutions.

1902 UNIVERSITIES COMMISSION

In 1902, a Universities Commission was appointed by Lord Curzon's Government, and its investigation was followed by the Universities Act of 1904. The main object of the Act was to tighten up control, on the part of Government over the universities, and on the part of the universities over the schools and colleges. The Government retained the power of cancelling any appointment and all university resolutions and proposals for the affiliation or disaffiliation of colleges were to be subject to Government sanction. The universities were given the responsibility of granting recognition to schools and of inspecting all schools and colleges, the inspection of schools being ordinarily conducted by the officers of the Department of Public Instruction. Permission was also given to the universities to undertake direct teaching functions and to make appointments, subject to Government sanction, for these objects, but their scope was in practice limited to post-graduate work and research. The territorial limits of each university were defined, so that universities were precluded from any connection with institutions lying outside those boundaries.

Neither the Commission nor the Government discussed the fundamental problems of university organisation, but dealt only with the immediate difficulties of the Indian system.

1913 Resolution—The Indian Universities Act of 1904 was followed by two important resolutions of the Government of India on Indian educational policy—one in 1904 and the other in 1913. The resolution of 1904 was comprehensive in character and reviewed the state of education in all its departments. The following passage from it summarises the intentions of Government:—"The progressive devolution of primary, secondary and collegiate education upon private enterprise and the continuous withdrawal of Government from competition therewith was recommended by the Education Commission in 1883 and the advice has generally been acted upon. But while accepting this policy, the Government of India at the same time recognise the extreme importance of the principle that in each branch of education Government should maintain a limited number of institutions, both as models for private enterprise to follow and in order to uphold a high standard of education. In withdrawing from direct management it is further essential that Government should retain a general control, by means of efficient inspection, over all public educational institutions." The comprehensive instructions contained in this resolution were followed in the next few years by the assignment to the States of large imperial grants, mainly for University, technical and elementary education.

The resolution of 1913 advocated, *inter alia*, the establishment of additional but smaller Universities of the teaching type; it reaffirmed the policy of reliance on private effort in secondary education; it recommended an increase in the

salaries of teachers and an improvement in the amounts of grants-in-aid; and it insisted on proper attention being paid to the formation of character in the education given to scholars of all grades. It further discussed the desirability of imparting manual instruction and instruction in hygiene; the necessity for medical inspection; the provision of facilities for research; the need for the staffing of the girls' schools by women teachers and the expansion of facilities for the training of teachers. The policy outlined in 1913 materially accelerated progress in the States, but the educational developments foreshadowed were in many cases delayed owing to the effects of the First World War.

The Reforms Act.—The Reforms Act of 1919 altered the conditions of educational administration in India. Education became a provincial 'transferred' subject in the Governors' States under the charge of a Minister, but the education of Europeans was made a provincial 'reserved' subject, *i.e.*, it was not within the charge of the Minister of Education. The introduction of provincial autonomy under the Government of India Act, 1935, brought education in these States under the full control of their Ministers of Education.

Broadly speaking, an educational policy for India as a whole no longer existed, but in order that States, may co-ordinate educational activities and follow a uniform policy of development, the Central Advisory Board of Education was reconstituted in 1935. This Board in which all the State governments are represented now meets annually to discuss all matters of education, and devise an all-India educational policy. Its function is, however, purely advisory.

At the time of handing over the administration of education to the States, the Government of India retained under their immediate control all education in the Centrally Administered Areas. They still deal with matters relating to Universities like Aligarh, Benares and Delhi.

The Central Advisory Board of Education advised the revival of the Bureau of Education, which was done in 1937. With the revival of these two Central Agencies, and especially with the enlargement in the membership, function and scope of the Central Advisory Board of Education, public opinion was once again focussed on vital educational problems and policies of an all-India character. The Board soon became a source of inspiration for systematic and co-ordinated educational development in the country as a whole; one of the most important contributions of the Board is its report on Post-War Educational Development in India, published in 1944.

The Board meets once a year generally in January. Since the advent of independence it has held five meetings.

Following a recommendation of the Central Advisory Board, the Government of India also constituted a separate Department of Education from 1st September, 1945, consisting of several technical officers, besides Secretariat Officers. On the 15th of August 1947 the Education Department became a full fledged Ministry of Education. With the attainment of freedom it was realised, as never before, that one of the basic steps towards national reconstruction was to improve and, if necessary, remodel the existing educational system of the country.

ART

Sculpture & Painting

INDIAN art is predominantly religious. Secular art was known, especially in the Gupta period and during the last few centuries, but it occupied a subordinate position, and most of its remnants are lost. As the chief aim of art was spiritual and contemplative, the representation of appearances was of secondary interest. In times of decadence the artists were content with ritualistic and iconographic correctness; in others they used religious imagery as a pretext for a lively description of elegant court life; in the best of times they filled it with a profound symbolic meaning and emotional appeal. In these latter periods the artists were well acquainted with the human anatomy and also had some notions of perspective; but such knowledge was subordinated to the decorative pattern, the evocation of ideal beauty, the suggestion of cosmic forces and spiritual experiences, and devotional responses. Indian art possesses an exceptional sensitiveness to the pulsating life of nature and the forces behind it. Its essential qualities are an inherent rhythm and vitality and a plastic power which, in painting and sculpture alike, reaches a perfection hardly ever matched elsewhere.

Indian art is almost anonymous, *i.e.* only the names of a few prominent artists have been preserved, but their role is not clear. The signatures of many architects, sculptors and painters have come down to us, but their individual achievements are not known. For the arts of ancient and mediæval India sprung mainly from the co-operative effort of craftsmen guilds which worked in the employ of rulers or religious institutions. In course of time a collection of scriptures came into being, the *silpa sastra*, which laid down certain rules to be followed in the creation of religious images, buildings, etc. These manuals, embodying much theoretical thinking and practical experience were originally meant to guide design without interference in the creative work of the artist, but when later generations misinterpreted their teachings as the very essence and not merely as the framework of art, they became the source of an ossified traditionansm.

Art in India has always had a certain unity regardless of the religious or dynastic powers. Racial and provincial peculiarities can be traced in all Indian styles, but "what separates the provinces of Indian art is subsidiary to what they have in common" (S. Kramrisch). The inherent strength of this art enabled it to absorb and overcome numerous foreign influences (such as Greek, Persian, Scythian) without altering its main direction. Even Muslim art became Indianized after a few centuries, and mixed styles flourished only at the frontiers (Afghanistan, Kashmir, Turkistan, Nepal, Assam).

The chronology of Indian art is a difficult problem. The classification of periods given here tries to do justice to the development of styles and is based on a broad dynastic framework.

EARLY ART

The excavations of Sir John Marshall and others in the Indus valley at Mohenjo Daro and Harappa discovered an ancient civilisation on which in about 3,000 B.C. had already reached a considerable degree of refinement. In many forms and symbols Mohenjo Daro heralds the beginning of Indian art with a strong Dravidian flavour. Outstanding are animal engravings on seals, and little statuettes in terracotta, stone or bronze, amongst which a bronze girl in a dancing pose anticipates later qualities of Indian plastic art.

From Mohenjo Daro to about 300 B.C. hardly any traces of artistic activities survive. This period saw the arrival of the Aryans in India and the coming into being of the three great Indian religions, Brahmanism, Buddhism and Jainism. From the religious scriptures and the great epics we know that painting, image-making and minor arts existed, though executed mainly in perishable material.

Under the Maurya emperors stone sculpture was introduced under Achaemenian influence. Though in the official monuments Persian inspirations and in some terracottas Greek techniques are evident, the main sculpture of the time was indigenous, going back to the folk cult of local deities, yakshas and yakshis. These archaic works, immobile, angular and flat, still reveal the planes of the wooden stone block. Under the Sungas in the north, the Andhras in the south (2nd and 1st centuries B.C.) they become alive and assume a pliability and elasticity penetrated by a flowing rhythm. Boorish-heavy, they possess a remarkable sensitiveness to the life pulsating through the human, animal and vegetable organism, a voluptuousness ever characteristic of Indian art.

The art of the period is almost exclusively Buddhist though with a strong undercurrent of primitive folk cults. Its best known centres are Bharhut, Besnagar, Sanchi, Bodh Gaya, Mathura and Pataliputra (Patna), Khandagiri (Orissa), Bhaja, Bedsa, Junnar, Karle, Kondane, Kanheri, Ajanta, in and near the Western Ghats, and Vengi in south India. Sculpture and relief were used to illustrate religious teaching on the rails, gates and walls of *stupas* (relic mounds which had become the centres of worship) and in the monasteries and chapels attached to them. In the reliefs depicting Buddha's life or that of his previous incarnations (Jatakas) Buddha is never presented in human form, but his presence is shown by symbols such as the tree of enlightenment, his footprints, the throne on which he sat or the platform on which he used to walk.

Belonging to the first century B.C., the fresco paintings in cave 9 and 10 in Ajanta (Hyderabad State) are the earliest of well-preserved paintings, though still earlier work survives in several other localities. Its competent naturalism points towards a long previous history.

Already the famous sculptures of the Sanchi *stupas* achieve a certain ease and elegance. The later monuments (1st to 3rd centuries A.D.) under the western Kshatrapas (Nasik, Junnar) and the Satavahanas of the south (Manmad, Ajanta, Nagarjunikonda, Jaggayyapata, Bhattiprolu, and especially Amaravati) drive this elegance of over slim figures, in most composite and decorative scenes, to a high pitch. The same period saw the power of the Kushan Empire establishing itself in the north-west and north. Here the centre of artistic creation was Mathura. Its sculpture lacked the slim elegance of the south, but it evolved an intensified plastic penetration, experimented with views, movements and poses, and developed a new iconography. Buddhism was still the predominant theme. Mathura created the Indian Buddha image in direct continuation of the old yaksha figures: and later the first Bodhisattvas and other deities of the Mahayana. It created the first Jain Tirthankar images and the earlier types of Hindu gods. Frankly sensuous, but in a different way from the nudes of the Greek schools, are the

female figures of Mathura and other centres. Probably these graceful if voluminous nymphs originated from aboriginal symbols of fertility, and later became the prototypes of the Hindu godesses and ultimately fixed, for centuries to come, the round-breasted, narrow-waisted, full-hipped ideal of female beauty for the Indian artist.

About the same time a hybrid art developed in eastern Afghanistan, the Gandhara country. Through direct contact with Graeco-Scythian and Parthian neighbours, Hellenistic forms were applied to Indian Buddhist themes. The Gandhara school has left behind an enormous output, most of which is of barbarian clumsiness. But individual early works (2nd century A.D). under direct Hellenistic, or late ones (4th to 5th centuries A.D.) under Gupta influence or in a local style are of great beauty. It has exercised *via* central Asia considerable influence on the Buddhist art of eastern Asia.

THE GUPTA AGE

In 320 A.D. Chandragupta founded the Gupta dynasty in Patna, which was to be the dominant power in India for about 250 years. Puranic Hinduism came to the forefront during this period and a very powerful Brahmanical art was produced all over the sub-continent, especially in Deogarh (C.I.), Aihole (Deccan), Ajanta (Hyderabad State), Udaygiri (near Sanchi), Gwalior and many other places. The art of the Gupta period can be best characterised by the word spiritual. The latent naturalism of earlier periods is now overcome or harnessed to the spiritual representations of superhuman, elementary or cosmic powers. The human figure is only a vehicle of transcendental forces. The artist masters every mood from the lyrical to the awe-inspiring. The Buddha images of Mathura and Sarnath are in their classic simplification and perfection of modelling, in their serene spirituality and dignity amongst the world's supreme religious images. The boar incarnation of Vishnu in Udaygiri is of impressive power which changes primitive terror to a deep experience of divine force. The development of the iconography of the Mahayana-Buddhist and Hindu pantheons is almost completed during this age.

During the sixth, seventh and early eighth centuries the Gupta spirit survived in Indian art; but with the decline and fall of the Gupta Empire it underwent a characteristic change. Canon and typology were increasingly fixed. In the 6th century the natural ease of the 5th yielded to a decorative pompous formalism while in the 7th it turned to a sweet, somewhat petty elegance and in the early 8th to an involved mannerism (Sarnath, Mathura, Ajanta, Aihole, Badami). The art of fresco painting had then reached its zenith. Ajanta, Bagh Pitalkhora, Bhaja (Buddhist), Aihole and Badami (Brahmanical) are the chief centres of this art as it survives today, but the Jain paintings of Sittanavasal (south India), the Brahmanical paintings of Tirumalaipuram and the Singhalese rock pictures of Sigiriya (Ceylon) testify to its distribution over the whole sub-continent.

All these paintings are mostly narrative in character. The painters depict religious legends in easily understandable form, making use of the costume, scenery and manners of their own period. The colours, made from minerals, are bright green, red, brown, yellow, black and blue (Ajanta). The greatest artistic merit of these paintings lies in their rhythmical, flowing outline which indicates the plastic volume of a body. Light and shade are unknown, but forms are modelled with colour shading. Perspective in the Western sense was not known but compositions achieve a surprising degree of depth.

The victory of Brahmanism (mainly Saivism) inspired art with a new enthusiasm, bringing forth a sculpture of remarkable virility. It detached itself in the northern Deccan from Gupta sculpture under the Chalukyas of Aihole and Badami (5th to 8th centuries A.D.), in the south from the Amaravati-Andhra tradition under the Pallavas of Kanchi (7th to 9th centuries A.D.) and reached its highwater mark under the Rashtrakutas of Malkhed (8th to 10th centuries A.D.). Sweeping movement becomes an expression of force; the swelling, rounded forms of human or animal bodies become signs of pent-up energies. The sculptures of the temples of Aihole, Badami, Pattadakal, or Kanchi, the rock-cut shrines of Mamallapuram ("Seven Pagodas" near Madras), and of the caves of Elephanta (near Bombay), Ellora and Aurangabad (Deccan) are representatives of this period. Its masterpieces are the sculptures at Ellora (Das Avatara, Ravana-ka Khai and Ramesvara caves, and some chapels in the enormous Kailasa), and the Trimurti of Elephanta.

MEDIÆVAL ART

The early mediæval north was dominated by two schools, that of the Palas and Senas in Bihar and Bengal, and that of the Pratiharas of Kanauj in the west. Both developed from late Gupta art, the first evolving an over-refined and rather mannered Tantric-Buddhist sculpture, the latter a Hindu style, related to the Rashtrakuta style, but without its grandeur. Whereas the Pala style survived in Greater India and central Asia, Pratihars sculpture became the starting point of a series of local schools, Chahamana, Paramara, Solanki, Vaghela and Oriya which, though elegant in detail excelled mainly in the symphonic composition of numerous figures. Since the 12th century this sculpture degenerated into a mass production of icons of merely ritualistic interest, representing an innumerable panthon solely distinguishable by means of its symbols. At last it was extinguished by the Muslim invasions. Revived in the 15th and 16th centuries, its tradition is still alive, though utterly ossified.

In the Deccan the Rashtrakuta style was taken over by the western Chalukyas, Hoysalas, Kakatiyas and several minor dynasties, and underwent the same transformation into an elaborate, but lifeless decoration.

In the south the Pallava tradition was handed over to the Cholas, the Pandyas, the emperors of Vijayanagar and the minor dynasties of Tanjore, Madura and Kerala. Under the Cholas it reached its classic phase; the south Indian bronzes, mostly Natarajas and other Saiva subjects, have become world famous. Thereafter the decline set in, but the tradition never sank so low as in the north. The tradition continues however though often in a grotesquely degenerated form.

In mediæval painting the trend towards a merely decorative interpretation was even more pronounced than in sculpture. Though vigorous, accepted forms tend to harden and are often overburdened with decorative details.

This trend was least pronounced in the south and east. The oldest wall paintings at Ellora still belong to Rashtrakuta times (8th to 9th centuries). In the south today we recognize Chola murals in the great Brihadesvara temple at Tanjore (11th century), in Pudukkottai and Tirumalaipuram, of the Pandya dynasty at Sittanavasal, of the Vijayanagar period at Tiruparuttikunram, Lepakshi, Anegundi, Somapalayam and Pillalmari. Later murals at Tiruparuttikunram bear a certain resemblance to the early Rajput miniatures of the north. In Kerala a local style flourished at Tirunandikara (9th century), Suchindrum (11th to 12th centuries) and at Ettumanur. Its last and most characteristic phase can be seen in the Padmanabha Temple at Trivandrum and the Mattancheri Palace at Cochin. There was a parallel late school at Tanjore and Madura. Offshoots of the south Indian style have been found in Ceylon, especially at Polonnaruva.

Because of wholesale destruction during the Muslim invasion and later neglect we know much less of northern India. Beautifully illustrated Buddhist palm leaf manuscripts were executed in Bengal and Bihar under the Pala and Varma kings. After the Muslim conquest the style was continued in Nepal, Burma and Greater India. In contrast to this "Eastern School" stood a "Western School", of a less ornate character. Only fragments of it have survived. The Paramara and Jain murals at Ellora the ceilings of Madanpur (C.I.) and some Jain manuscripts and bookcovers of Solanki and Vaghela times (12th to 13th centuries) are representative examples. Some Buddhist palm leaf manuscripts and frescoes in Ladakh and Spiti may be attributed to an intermediate school in Kashmir.

MUSLIM PERIOD

As in architecture, the Muslim invasion introduced a foreign style of sculpture and painting which, however, was completely absorbed after some centuries. Muslim orthdoxy disapproved of figural art, but in practice heraldic and symbolic sculpture, and book illustrations were cultivated, and wall painting was tolerated by many princes and nobles at least in their private rooms. Except for a few seals and portrait coins, Muslim sculpture was limited to horse, elephant and lion statues or coats-of-arms, and bird or other animal and flower motifs in decoration. Illustrated manuscripts imitated the early Muslim style of the so-called "Baghdad School" which in Gujarat survived into the 15th century. Under the Bahmanis Mongol-Persian and early Samarkand Timurid painting was introduced. Under the Lodis and the late sultans of Malwa and Bengal the later Timurid style of Herat came into fashion. The remnants of this art which are very rare also prove that these foreign styles were influenced by contemporary Hindu art.

For when Muslim oppression relaxed, a conscious renaissance of mediæval art set in which at last turned into a new folk style. In the south, in Bengal, Orissa, Gujarat and Rajasthan the old art had survived though more or less ossified. Sculpture was applied to the stelæ of local Hindu chieftains and painting to the illustration of religious manuscripts (especially the Jain Kalpa Sutra and Kalakacharya Katha). By the middle of the 15th century the renaissance in Gujarat and Rajasthan brought forth a new temple sculpture and book illustration to Vaishnava and Saiva subjects. Though conventional and clumsy it was lively and decorative. In the course of the 16th century it blossomed into early Rajput art. Early Rajasthani painting flourished in the late 16th and early 17th centuries. It was used for the illustration of the *Bhagavata Purana*, *Chandi Mahatmya*, the old epics, Hindi lyrics and music (*Ragmala*), and for portraits and historical scene. Its archaic, formalized style, with simple, flowing outlines and brilliant colour-contrasts, without modelling or depth, against a yellow or red background, continued the Jain tradition. But its typology came from many sources and its conception from the old warrior stelæ. It has a vitality and intensity of expression and suggestive mystic power comparable only to the otherwise so different sculpture of the 7th and 8th centuries. During most of the 17th and 18th centuries Rajasthani painting was reduced to a provincial branch of Moghul art, but re-emerged after the decline of the Moghul empire, with a Mughal technique, yet retaining all the old ideals and æsthetic concepts. Towards the beginning of the 17th century the earlier Rajasthani style of painting had been introduced in the Kangra Valley at Nurpur and Basohli, and spread from there over the whole Punjab Himalaya (Pahari schools). In the 18th century it was superseded by the "Kangra" style proper, a derivative from Mughal technique in a Rajput spirit. This charming, sweet and romantic art, one of the highlights of the Indian tradition, flourished mainly under Sansar Chand of Tira-Sujanpur. Its best known master was Mola Ram of Garhwal. The art was at last taken over by the Sikhs and Kashmiris.

Derived from the Timurid School of miniature painting in Persia and beginning under strong Safavi-Persian influence in the middle of the 16th century, Moghul painting soon developed into a genuine Indian art. Even in early Moghul times Akbar employed indigenous artists who under the guidance of Persian masters were put to the task of illustrating manuscripts. Under Jehangir the last Persian traces disappeared, so that Moghul painting differed from early Rajput

merely by a greater elaboration of detail, depth of scenery, a certain naturalism and a more delicate colour scheme. Under Jahangir and Shahjahan Moghul painting reached its climax.

Moghul art was essentially a court art, limited in its scope, and overshadowed by the demand for extreme technical perfection. It was individualistic with a clear development of the personal style of different artists who are known by name (a thing rarely heard of in popular Indian art). It is illustrative, and is mainly concerned with the representation of court scenes, portraits, historical events, or the skilful rendering of flowers or animals. But since the late 17th century Indian painters did not only introduce Hindu themes into Moghul art, but gradually flavoured it with the Hindu spirit. In technical excellence, accurate and delicate drawing, and in observance and taste Moghul art is unsurpassed.

Parallel schools of painting flourished in the Muslim kingdoms of the Deccan, Ahmednagar, Bijapur and Golconda. Their style was a mixture of Persian, Turkish and Vijayanagar-Hindu elements; later it came under Moghul influence, and was at last partly taken over by the painters of Hyderabad under the Nizams. It occupies an intermediate position between Moghul and Rajput painting, but is more dynamic and uses much gilding.

MODERN ART

With the eclipse of the mediæval powers and the introduction of European civilisation, the indigenous arts lost patronage and declined rapidly. In order to save them from oblivion art schools were started on the British model and attached to the country's educational system. Drawing, painting and modelling and certain arts and crafts were taught in accordance with Western academic tradition. On the whole, this Western tradition proved uncongenial and sterile. Raja Ravivarman's attempt to use it for the expression of Hindu religious concepts and mythological scenes was a complete artistic failure, though his cheap oil prints found much favour with the public. The art schools produced some well known artists, such as the sculptors Mhatre and V. P. Karmarkar (Bombay), and the painters Haldankar, Parendekar, Lalkaka, V. R. Rao, V. A. Mali, G. D. Deuskar in Bombay, J. P. Gangooly, H. Majumdar and Atul Bose in Calcutta.

At the beginning of this century therefore E. B. Havell, principal of the Calcutta Art School and Abanindranath Tagore advocated a return to the traditional indigenous techniques and styles. This so-called Bengal School soon became most influential and was looked on as the representative of a modern national art. It did a great service in restoring the continuity of a national tradition, but the efforts ended in failure because the approach was much too timid. Ignoring many vital aspects of the national art, it soon lost contact with modern trends in the country, and lapsed into an archaistic academic immitation of the Ajanta murals, and of the Moghul and Rajput miniatures. It also cultivated a "spiritual" sentimentality inspired by Preraphaelite and other neo-Romantic Western pictures. Its leading masters, besides Abanindranath Tagore, are Nandalal Bose, the late Suren Ganguly, Asit Kumar Haldar, Kshitindranath Mazumdar, Bireswar Sen and Ishwar Dass. The chief centre of the school outside Bengal is Lucknow. A minor parallel school was started at Ahmedabad by Ravishankar Raval, the best known artist of which was Kanu Desai. Kanu Desai's decorative designs and prints became very popular particularly through the medium of the film. A representative of the same school in Lahore is R. Chughtai many of whose pictures interpret Muslim attitudes.

During the last two decades the revivalist school has been more and more challenged by a modern art movement. Modern art, being international, freely experimental, and open to all types of inspiration offered a possible approach to an expression of the actual moods and thoughts of contemporary India. Naturally it reflects all the extreme tensions inherent in a time of rapid political, social and cultural change, from new interpretations of traditional Indian art and adaptations of modern Western art fashions to a genuine synthesis, in a modern yet thoroughly Indian idiom. Abanindranath Tagore was the first to experiment with new techniques, mainly Chinese and Japanese. Nandalal Bose took up the modern Bengali folk style in which he found a famous follower in Jamini Roy. Gogonendranath Tagore experimented with Cubism.

Amrita Sher Gil who died prematurely in 1941, was the first representative of a great modern Indian art of international reputation. Since then Bombay has had the lead in modern art, and next to it Delhi. With an art movement so experimental it is difficult to classify the workers. S. B. Paliskar, Abani Sen, Makan Dutta Gupta, L. M. Sen, Madan Lal Nagar, D. J. and Manohar Joshi, R. C. S. Paniker, and S. H. Raza represent an Impressionist approach. Manishi Dey might be described as a sort of expressionists interpreter of the ancient Indian mural style. Extreme modernists are George Keyt (Ceylon), Rathin Moitra (Calcutta), and M. F. Hussain and Francis Newton-Souza (Bombay). A more synthetic style in modern technique, based on Indian tradition is found in the paintings of N. S. Bendre, S. Chavda, K. K. Hebbar, K. H. Ara all from Bombay, B. Sanyal (Delhi), S. R. Khastgir (Dehra Dun), S. N. Butt (Srinagar), Kalyan Sen and Sailoz Mookerjea (Calcutta). A national Christian art is cultivated by A. D. Thomas, A. Trindade and A. de Fonseca. Sculpture is still neglected. However, D. P. Roy Chowdhury, S. R. Khastgir, S. K. Bakre, and espécially Prodosh Das Gupta deserve mention among the Impressionists, and Sankho Chaudhuri, Dhanrak Bhagat and S. K. Bakre among expressionists and extreme modernists. Graphic artists are Mukul Dey, Haren Das, Makhan Dutta Gupta, L. M. Sen and Y. K. Shukla.

The Government School of Art, Calcutta, teaches Fine Art, Indian Painting, Commercial Art, Modelling, Lithography, Word-Engraving and Draftsmanship and has a Teachership Department for post-graduate studies.

The Sir J. J. School of Arts in Bombay has grown into a large and many-sided institution. It teaches a variety of crafts and industrial arts, such as stone carving, metal work, leather work, textile design, etc. It has also a large commercial art and photographic section. Many art schools flourish in India in different centres such as Indore, Delhi, Lucknow, Banaras, Shantiniketan, Madras, Mysore, Travancore, Patna, under State Governments or as private institution.

Art exhibitions have increased in number while the quality of the exhibits has also risen during the last few years. The leading art societies in India are the Bombay Art Society, the All-India Fine Arts and Crafts Society (Delhi), The Indian Academy of Fine Arts (Calcutta), the Society of South Indian Painters (Madras), the Delhi Silpa Chakra, Kala Darshan (Ahmedabad), the Simla Art Society and the Progressive Artists Association (Kashmir). Various Art Conferences have tried to organize a central body in an All-India Association of Fine Arts. The Central and State Governments, as well as the various foreign Embassies have encouraged art activities, and modern Indian painters have exhibited with success in other countries, especially the U.S.A., Great Britain, France, Switzerland and Italy.

ARTS AND CRAFTS

IT is in the arts and crafts of a people that its heritage of artistic feeling, design and religious belief remain alive over many hundreds, if not thousands, of years. The Indian sub-continent absorbed throughout its long history innumerable foreign influences into its arts. Beginning with the fusion of Aryan and Dravidian art during the first millennium B.C., over the influx of Greek, Persian, Hellenistic, central or Asiatic Far-Eastern elements in pre-Gupta and Gupta times, to the blending of Islamic with Hindu forms of design after the Muslim conquest and even to the absorption of European features, the arts and crafts of the Indian sub-continent have adopted new designs, fused them with old ones and infused them with the spirit and the sensitiveness of this country. Two main elements can be discerned; on the one hand we have the geometrical element of the Northern nomads in which all natural forms are reduced to decorative patterns. This element came into the country in successive waves with the Aryans, the Scythians, the White Huns, the Mongols and the Muslims. The other element, which might be taken as belonging to the indigenous South Indian is more exuberant and uses natural forms such as human or animal figures with greater freedom. The desire to decorate even the humblest articles of daily use and to introduce beauty into every feature of life has been inherent in the Indian sub-continent from time immemorial and has even survived, sadly weakened, the industrial revolution of our age. The gay and tasteful dresses of the village folk of today testify to the indestructible artistic sense of this ancient race.

Pottery—In the excavations of Mohenjo-daro and other Indus valley sites pottery of the 4th and 3rd millennium B.C. has been found, of pleasing shape and with very decorative paintings in black or red in which animal forms feature prominently. Up to the present time, the potter's wares have usually been of good functional design and quite often they have been painted. Well known is the glazed ware from Agra, Muradabad, Jaipur, Multan and Hala. Terracotta work has found manifold adaptations throughout the ages, a particularly beautiful one in the Gupta reliefs from Ahichhatra, Suratgarh, Paharpur, Nandangarh and terracotta reliefs on 16th to 18th century temples in Bengal. Glazed tiles were used by the Muslims for architectural decoration especially in Sind, the Punjab, Kashmir and the Deccan. The many coloured tile mosaics of Lahore Fort are famous.

Stone Work—Carved stone work is the principal form of decoration on Hindu or Muslim buildings. Ranging from fully sculptured figure friezes to the finest trellis work it is found on buildings of every epoch. Well known for the skill and the imagination displayed, are the Jain marble temples of Dilwara in Mount Abu and the Hoysala temples of Mysore. Muslim buildings are soberer in their ornamentation. The stone carvers of Ahmedabad excelled in delicate "*jali*" (stone tracery) work for windows (Sidi Sayyid's mosque). On buildings of the Pathan dynasty of Delhi wonderful decorative use has been made of carved Persian or Arabic lettering (Qutb Minar). The use of marble inlay and mosaic work became fashionable under the Moghuls and led to mastership in the costly art of "pietra dura" in which precious stones are inlaid in marble in most delicate and delightful flower patterns. The stone masons of modern Jaipur are highly skilled in architectural carving.

Wood Work—Wood carving was, as elsewhere, the mother of the art of stone carving. With a fine range of precious timbers suitable for the purpose, wood has always played an important part in building and decoration. The earliest extant Indian monuments (Bharhut, Sanchi) are imitations of wooden prototypes, the beautifully carved house fronts in Ahmedabad and other Gujarat cities, Maharashtra, the Punjab, Nepal, and the western Himalayas, the 16th to 19th century Jain temples in Ahmedabad are all carved in wood and painted right up to their domes, teeming with multitudes of figures. They are imitations of the stone carved temple ceilings of Mount Abu and Kumbaria. Richly carved furniture is made today in Kashmir (walnut) and in South India (rosewood and blackwood). Decorative carving in sandalwood for domestic or religious purposes is at home in South India.

Ivory—An inscription in Sanchi (1st century B.C.) says that part of the stone relief work of the Southgate was done by the ivory carvers of Besnagar. This alone proves the close interrelation of all the arts and crafts in the Indian sub-continent. Most important ivory reliefs of the Kushan period have lately been excavated at Begram (Afghanistan) and Pompeii (Italy). Of the Muslim period we have fine ivory boxes from Bijapur, Golconda, Bengal, Orissa and Goa, doors panelled with ivory from Jaipur, Bikaner and Udaipur. The doorleaves of the Amba Vilas Palace, Mysore, are covered with excellent reliefs. In Delhi ivory carving and painting was reintroduced early in the 19th century. Still a flourishing art in South India (Mysore, Travancore) and in Delhi, ivory articles find a ready market inland and overseas. Though of perfect finish, modern work lacks the sensitive sculpturing of earlier work.

Metal Work—With the exception of weaving the metal industry employed and still employs the greatest number of craftsmen and the greatest variety of methods and techniques. There is hardly a place where metal objects are not made in one form or other. Iron and steel, known from early times, were mainly used in weapons. The best damascened blades come from South India and Rajputana. Brass and copper go to make the plain but beautiful utensils of domestic use (*lota*, *huqqa*, etc.) and ceremonial lamps, images, vessels, etc., for religious worship. These articles are cast, hammered, chased, inlaid, encrusted or otherwise worked. The South Indian image maker's (*sthapati*) bronze or brass castings are a marvel. Well known is *bidri* ware (from Bidar in Hyderabad) in which silver is inlaid in a dark metal alloy or *koftgari* ware, the best specimens of which come from Muradabad and the Punjab, in which gold and silver are inlaid in steel. Gold and silver in repoussé or filigree, are worked into fine articles in Kashmir, Lucknow and other places.

Jewellery—From time immemorial jewellery of rich design was made in the Indian sub-continent, and worn by both sexes. Simple beads of polished precious stones have been found in many pre-historic and early historic sites. Classic and medieval sculptures and paintings tell us about the endless variety of jewellery, to describe which would require a large treatise. Flowers being the most primitive form of adornment, many forms of jewellery, up to the present day, derive their name and shape from floral prototypes. Perhaps the finest jewellery work is done in gold enamelling, Lahore and Jaipur giving the choicest pieces. Typical is the incrustration of gold and silver with gems which are always *cabochon* cut (never facetted as modern European jewellery) for a fuller colour effect. Another very ancient technique is gold and silver filigree applied to ornaments. Nothing can compare with the exuberant splendour of the country's jewellery, though the skill in stone-cutting and also in setting has not always reached the level of Western craftsmen.

Lacquer Work and Papier Mache—Lac being an indigenous product, laquer work in various techniques has assumed industrial proportions in parts of the sub-continent. Best known perhaps are the products of the Kashmiri craftsmen, especially in connection with papier maché painting. Lac turnery for furniture, toys and other objects is a widespread art in western India, especially in Kathiawar and Gujerat. In Sawantwadi (Konkan Coast) a small lacquer industry produces artificial fruit, playing cards, toys, etc.

Textiles—No other country, East or West, has ever excelled the Indian sub-continent in the weaving of cotton and silken fabrics. Since ancient times, Indian textiles were in great demand in all world markets. There is hardly a technique or art in fabric making that was or is not known in some part of India or Pakistan. A very short enumeration must suffice *Patola* silks of Gujerat, in which the threads are variously dyed before weaving; fine silks and brocades from Benares, Murshidabad, Hyderabad, Madras, Tanjore and other places; finely woven woollen Kashmir shawls; delicate muslins from Dacca; tie-dyed fabrics from Rajputana; various forms of dye-painting on cotton (*qalmdar*, similar to Javanese batik) from South India; printed silks and cottons from all parts north or south with some of the finest cotton prints coming from Sanganir near Jaipur. As there is no limit to the styles of embroidery, mention may be made only of the *phulkari* work of the Punjab, the colourful embroideries of Kathiawar and the world-famous Kashmir shawls. Carpet making is at home in the North. Especially under Akbar in the 16th century, gorgeous rugs and carpets were made, exquisite in colour and fabric, though the finest work from Persia was never equalled.

It has been estimated that there are still 2½ million handlooms in India and Pakistan and the industry though depressed by the competition of the power loom, survives with part of its old artistic sense and skill.

Rangolis—Worth mentioning are the artistic designs made by the women with coloured powders on the floor or on the doorsteps of their houses as festival decoration. Preserving the age-old designs of religious symbolism, they are known in all parts of India in a great variety of patterns (*rangoli* in Gujerat, *alpona* in West Bengal, *kolam* in South India, etc.).

There can be no doubt that the skill and artistic sense of the craftsman is still alive, perhaps slumbering. As Mr. Fred H. Andrews said, "deterioration is not the fault of the craftsman but of his employer." However, all the indigenous crafts have badly suffered from the industrialization of the country. Government and private efforts to save them have been successful only in preserving the technical tradition. Industrial competition and new fashions have deprived the craftsman of most of his customers for quality products. He has also lost his aristocratic and rich middle class employers and now has to cater chiefly for less well-to-do people for whom his traditional designs and techniques are too expensive. In consequence the old designs are deteriorating quickly, whereas new designs often suffer from a lack of taste. However, certain old industries have maintained their high quality, especially Benares Saris. Other industries particularly in Kashmir, Bihar and Central India are successfully adapting themselves to modern needs. Industrial production where it simply accepts the tastes of a disorientated public, has lost contact with the national tradition. Where it tries to shape them, it is beginning to bring out very satisfactory creations. The "Art in Industry Institute" at Calcutta is doing most valuable work for the improvement of public taste. The future of the national arts and crafts depends not on a revival of dying traditions, but on an intelligent adaptation to changing conditions combining the best of the past with the technical opportunities of the present.

ARCHÆOLOGY

ALTHOUGH India is one of the most ancient countries in the world and the cradle of an ancient civilization, it has long remained in the background owing to the absence of written histories going back to the earliest recorded period as in the case of other ancient lands such as Egypt or Mesopotamia. Over a hundred years ago the foundation of Indian archæology was laid by Prinsep, who first deciphered the ancient Brahmi script and thus opened the way to a knowledge of the edicts of the Emperor Asoka and other ancient documents, which till then were a sealed book to the people of India or Pakistan. Since then a large number of scholars Indian, Pakistani and European have helped in building up the edifice of Indian and Pakistani archæology which though fairly comprehensive is still incomplete in several respects.

The story commences with the beginnings of human existence in the vast sub-continent. The roughly chipped stone implements discovered in various parts of the sub-continent, particularly in the eastern districts of Madras State, and the valleys of the Sabarmati, Narmada and Godavari show the first attempts made by man to work his tools with which to master his surroundings. Two of these palæolithic implements were found in association with the bones of extinct animals, one at Bhutra in Narsingpur district, Madhya Pradesh, on the banks of the Narmada and the other at Mungi on the upper Godavari. The age of the palæoliths determined mostly by geological considerations may be anywhere from 50,000 to 200,000 years, and the great interval of time between the microlithic and the palæolithic periods is shown by nearly a hundred feet of alluvial and wind-blown loam deposits in the valley of the Sabarmati river.

STONE AGE

The whole field of pre-history is receiving increasing attention, which is expected to systematise our knowledge of the earliest inhabitants of the sub-continent and systematic work has been recently attempted at several sites in Madras, Mayurbhanj, Rajpipla, Baroda, Andhra and Karnatak.

Neolithic man, who used a large variety of polished stone implements, was more widely distributed throughout the continent, particularly in the Peninsula and the Vindhyan regions and his skeletal remains have for the first time been unearthed in Gujarat. On the other hand the megalithic tombs which occur in a great variety of forms in the central and southern parts of the Peninsula, belong to the iron age and some even persist to our own age. The knowledge of metals developed differentially in the North and the South. Thus in the North the copper implements of the Gangetic Valley and the copper and bronze antiquities of the Indus culture exclude any knowledge of iron. In the South, however, though certain recent finds in Raichur district do not exclude the knowledge of copper smelting in the Peninsula, the neolithic settlements of the Bellary district seem to have been immediately followed by the knowledge of the smelting of iron, as evidenced by the large-scale furnaces which stand in the shape of cinder mounds notably at Kudatini (Bellary Dt.). It is clear that while copper and bronze were known in the North in the third millennium B.C. the South may have been generally content with the use of stone implements right down to the first millennium B.C. until stone was supplanted by iron. It is remarkable that in some of the localities in the ancient Deccan, comprising the Bombay Karnatak, the Ceded Districts of Madras, South Hyderabad and North Mysore, stone implements and painted pottery are followed by antiquities of the regular historic period. This gives the hope that a regular sequence can be established and links forged between the history and the pre-history of the Deccan.

AGRICULTURAL SETTLEMENTS

The earliest agricultural settlements yet known in India have been located in the desert and hilly regions of Sind and Baluchistan going at least to the beginning of the third millennium B.C. There is ample evidence to show that the climatic conditions of Sind and Baluchistan were more favourable in those days than today : abundant rainfall supported small agricultural communities. The existence of *gabarbands* or artificial stone built dams and terraces of unknown date in Baluchistan also support this view. The earliest phase of the prehistoric culture of Baluchistan is Quetta culture. Its pottery belongs to the Buff-ware group painted in purplish-brown and the designs are wholly geometric. The Nal-Amri culture can be divided into three phases—Amri, Nundara and Nal. The settlements of the Amri—Nal phase were under two acres. Some of the settlements were fortified. Stone was employed for the foundation of the houses but the walls were of mud-brick or pisé ; stone was also used but only rarely for this purpose. The burial rite at Nal was inhumation or fractional burial. A large number of potteries and copper implements were also found. The vast majority of the Nal and Amri vessels have a buff or pinkish paste with a white slip for painting the designs. Designs representing animal or plant forms are absent on Amri ware, but are typical of Nal pots. Geometrical motifs are more common. There is also evidence of metal working in Amri-Nal culture. Copper ore was used for forging weapons. Beads were extensively used for making ornaments.

The Kulli culture (south Baluchistan) is distinguished by a characteristic painted pottery style. It is distinguished from Amri-Nal culture by a distinct burial site and abundance of clay figurines of women and animals. The normal building material employed by the culture was stone and sometimes the stone wall was plastered from inside. An important group of vessels carved out of soft stone has been discovered. The ornament on the pottery consists of naturalistic representations of plants and animals. The geometric ornaments are of varied shape and size. The Mehi cemetery was surprisingly rich in copper and bronze objects. There is evidence to show that Kulli culture was influenced by Harappa. There also seems to have been trade connections between south Baluchistan and Mesopotamia in Early Dynastic Sumer.

In North Baluchistan particularly in the valley of Zhob there existed a group of cultures known to archaeologists as *Zhob cultures*. Ross's work at Ran and Ghundai revealed five strata. In the earliest stratum (R.G.I.) the site was probably occupied by a semi-nomadic people living in impermanent huts and camps. Their pottery was unpainted and hand-made. The domesticated horse was known to them. In the second phase (R.G.II) the new comers built houses and made superb wheel-turned painted pottery. The pottery decoration consists of stylized figures of humped bulls and black buck. This new occupation does not seem to have lasted long. The third phase (R.G.III), the rise and decline of which could be seen in the stylistic sequences of its pottery, lasted for a considerable time. The culture had a violent end.

In common with Kulli culture the Zhob valley sites have yielded a considerable number of clay figurines of cattle and women. The female figures are characterised by staring circular eye-holes, an owl-beak nose and a grim slit mouth. Perhaps they represent the great mother goddess presiding over the destiny of the dead.

INDUS VALLEY

The most interesting and significant phase of the pre-historic civilization of the sub-continent is, that represented by the excavations at Harappa in Punjab (Pakistan) and Mohenjo-daro in Sind. These have completely revolutionized ideas on this subject and proved that as far back as the 3rd millennium B.C. the sub-continent was in possession of a highly developed civilization with well-planned and populous cities, well built houses and public buildings of brick, carefully constructed wells and a system of drains and many other amenities not always enjoyed at that period by the peoples of Mesopotamia and Egypt. Both at Mohenjo-daro and Harappa there are the remains of some 5 or 6 cities super-imposed one upon the ruins of another.

MOHENJO-DARO AND HARAPPA

In the matter of actual plan and lay-out the two cities of Harappa and Mohenjo-daro are strikingly similar, and Dr. Wheeler's recent work at Harappa has thrown much light on the significance of this planning. The mounds on the west of both the cities represent citadels roughly parallelogram in plan and measuring about 400 yards north-south and 200 yards east-west. Within the citadels, on a mud-brick platform, stood structures defended by a battened wall of baked brick facing the mud-brick core with rectangular towers and great gateways.

Adjacent to the citadel site at Mohenjo-daro is the ' Great Bath ' with steps leading down from each end. The bath is built of fine brickwork and provision is made to drain the bath when needed. Around it is a cloister and a set of changing rooms and some other buildings whose exact nature has not been determined, but one of them might have served as a college. All these structures remind us of a Hindu temple. The citadel at Harappa also shows the remains of ceremonial terraces and a processional way leading up to gateways and these might have been connected with some religious ceremony.

Below the citadel lies the remainder of the streets, shops and dwelling houses. The basic lay-out of the city of Mohenjo-daro consists of main streets running north-south and east-west dividing the area into blocks. One could imagine from whatever details have come down to us that the city was a square and consisted of twelve major building blocks. The main blocks were provided with side lanes and alleys, thus dividing the blocks into individual houses. These houses, specially those of the well-to-do were built of burnt bricks. The outside walls overlooking the streets were provided with doorways. There are no traces of windows which were very high up in the walls. The house consisted of a courtyard with rooms and baths grouped round it. Buildings has also upper stories. The roofs were made of bamboo and rush matting covered with mud. The water supply came from the wells lined with bricks. Quarters for working men have been discovered at both cities. Beyond the working men's quarters at Harappa stood grain pounding devices behind which was a great granary.

There seems to have been some kind of municipal authority to look after the drainage of the city.

The remarkable conservatism of the Indus Valley culture in the field of arts and even the details of every day life presuppose a theocratic authority which insisted on the rigid observance of the traditions of the temple. The way the whole plan was laid out with the citadel, the defensive walls carrying on their fortified summit a group of buildings indicates the existence of a priest king wielding autocratic power from the two main seats of government.

The evidence from the skulls found in Mohenjo-daro and Harappa shows that ethnically the people of the Indus Valley culture consisted of (1) the aboriginal Proto-Australoid type, (2) the predominant Mediterranean and (3) an occasional hilly type from the north-east—the hill country of Nepal or of Assam. The sculptural evidence also supports this view. The famous statuette of the dancing girl perhaps represents a Proto-Austroloid type with full lips and wiry limbs ; the head of the bearded man would fit well enough with the Mediterranean facial type.

The large number of provincial sites interspersed in Sind and the Punjab formed a necessary corollary to the highly urbanised Indus Valley culture. Some of the sites must have been those of trading centres. An analysis of the objects found from Mohenjo-daro and Harappa shows that the people got their bitumen, alabaster and steatite from Baluchistan ; silver from Afghanistan or Persia ; silver, tin, lead and semi-precious stones such as lapis, lazuli and turquoise from Persia or Afghanistan, and the haematite from the islands of the Persian Gulf. Kathiawar and Gujarat provided chankshell, agates and carnelian. From Rajasthan came copper ; the Deccan provided amethyst and the Nilagiri provided amozonite. Jadite came from Central Asia or Burma.

All the goods must have been transported by means on pack animals or carts. There must have been considerable river traffic too, and perhaps very primitive ships sailed from the sea ports of Sind to the Persian Gulf. In keeping with this highly developed trade, the Indus Valley culture had a well-developed system of pictographic writing found mostly on stamp seals. The script was written from right to left, though when there is a second line the boustrophedon practice prevailed. The writing has not been deciphered so far. Perhaps the inscriptions on the seals represent personal names.

A large number of weights have also been found and so also a scale measuring 13.2 inches.

INDUS VALLEY CULTURE

The Indus Valley seals are distinguished for their brilliant representations of animals, both mythical and actual, shown in profile. In addition to this glyptic art the Indus Valley culture introduced some remarkable sculptures in the round a few of which had inlaid decoration. The little bronze figure of the Dancing Girl from Mohenjo-daro is remarkable for its sensitive modelling. The sculpture in general shows that men had short beards and embroidered robes while the women had elaborate head-dresses and an abundance of ornaments consisting of parures, collars, girdles and necklaces. Some of these ornaments have actually been dug up at Harappa and Mohenjo-daro. Ornaments such as earrings and nose-studs were made of gold and semi-precious stones. Beads were extensively used and were made with great skill. Kohl was applied with little rods and razors were used for shaving. The pottery is for the most part quite plain. The decorated variety is a black-on-red ware, the designs being geometrical in shape. Irregular mass of foliage and tendrils, and birds and animals were also used for purposes of design. In some Harappa sherds there are human figures. Polychrome pottery also exists. The use of faience was also known. There were metal-smiths who manufactured tools such as axes, chisels, knives, etc. in copper and bronze by casting and forging.

The inhabitants of the Indus Valley were mostly cultivators. It is interesting that the wheat found at Mohenjo-daro and Harappa resembles the common variety grown in Pakistan today. Barley, sesamum and field peas were also grown. The food of the people appears to have included, bread, beef, mutton, and pork, the flesh of tortoise, turtles and gharial, fresh fish from the Indus and dried fish from the sea coast.

Religion also seems to have played an important part in the Indus Valley culture. As we have already shown there is a hint of priest-rule in the citadel architecture of Harappa. The numerous clay figurines of women establish the existence of the worship of a Mother—Goddess, the *gramadevatas* of contemporary Hinduism. Then there is the representation of a horned male god, with three faces, seated in the posture of a *yogi* surrounded by an elephant, a tiger, a rhinoceros and a buffalo and a couple of deer near his feet. In him one may recognise the prototype of the great God Siva, the Lord of Animals. There is also evidence of some form of phallic worship while the worship of animals and trees formed a separate feature of the Indus Valley religion.

JHUKAR CIVILIZATION

The simpler peasant civilizations of Baluchistan and the great urban civilization of the Indus Valley came to an end sometime in the middle of the 2nd millennium B.C. The story of this could be read at Rana Ghundai (R.G. III-c) which shows clear signs of conflagration. This phase is followed by stratum IV and V the painted pottery of which shows a rapidly changing population. The same evidence of pillage and burning is present in the last phase of the Nal culture. In south Baluchistan no comparable signs are apparent, but two cemeteries at Shahi Tump datable to C.2000 B.C. display features similar to those of the Indus Valley culture. Grave goods in most instances consisted of groups of pots, copper and bronze tools and ornaments, stone beads and alabaster cups. The outside ornaments on the vessels consist of *swastikas* and the interior ornaments besides *swastikas* of, spirals, chevrons, lozenges and triangles. The copper shaft-hole battle-axe has its nearest parallel in the battle axes found in the graves of chieftans of barbarous tribes in south Russia.

It is surmised from such relics as these that the men who finally destroyed the Indus Valley civilization were invaders who swept down into the sub-continent through the Bolan pass. They belonged to the Shahi Tump culture, the copper stamp seals from which speak of a Persian or Central Asian relationship.

This new intrusive culture is known as Jhukar culture to archæologists. The largest body of evidence of this culture occurs at Chanhu-daro. In Stratum II of the site the people who occupied the earlier site probably lived in thatched huts or tents, with fire places built in door-ways or niches. They used a characteristic type of pottery, stamp seals, amulets, beads, metal tools and pins, bone awls and a pottery head-rest. The pottery is buff ware with ornaments painted on it in black and red and comprising geometrical and stylised plant forms drawn probably from the Harappa and Kulli motifs. The seals are altogether different in their ornamental motifs from the Indus Valley seals, though they bear close affinity to the stamp seals of the great Western Asiatic family. The beads also point in the same direction.

The actual arrival of the invaders cannot be traced at Mohenjo-daro but the disturbed conditions of the time are reflected in the hurry with which the people buried their jewellery ; the buildings show a falling off in standard, and municipal regulations in general are layer to the extent that pottery kilns appear in the city boundaries. The bigger houses were also being partitioned into smaller flats for security reasons. That the threat to the city was real is shown by a number of skeletons of people fleeing for their lives.

At Harappa the arrival of the new people is marked by a distinctive type of pottery found in the ' Cemetary H ' and coeval with the final phase of the construction of the West Gateway of the citadel. The construction of this period is poor and certain charred remnants suggest barbarians' huts. The burial pottery of the second phase of the ' Cemetary H ' which is made of a hard red fabric with red slip and black ornaments of stars, stylised forms, ring and dot patterns, zigzag, etc. or of cattle, goats, peacocks and fishes are fairly common. The figures are treated not realistically but symbollically. There is no analogy to the older kind of pottery and the only thing that could be said about it is that it betrays an ancient Iranian or North Mesopotamian strain.

The arrival of a new people in India about this time is also proved by other evidence not directly connected with the Indus Valley Civilization, the presence of the flat axe from Kurram, for instance, common in Europe, but rare in Asia. There are other finds of copper implements, one group in the Doab in U.P. and the other centered round the Ranchi upland. The simple flat axe could not be affiliated with its prototype at Harappa, but the prototype of the elongated variety exists at Chanhu-daro. The copper harpoons found from the Gangetic Valley are perhaps of local development among the river-side people whose economy centred round fish-spearing. In these elongated axes which probably owe their origin to the Indus Valley or an allied culture we may see evidence of the expansion into and colonisation of the Gangetic Valley from the west. Thus from all available evidence from the Punjab, Sind and the Gangetic Valley it is possible to say that near about 1,500 B.C. a new people from the west gave a rude shock to the long-established civilization of North-West India. This general movement of the barbarians was not confined to this country alone. They (the barbarians) also appeared in Babylonia, Syria, North Persia and in Russian Turkistan. Before their onslaught the ancient Western Asiatic civilization broke down resulting in the introduction of new ideas and new techniques such as the use of horse-drawn chariots in warfare. Civilization was taking a new turn.

ARYANS

The people who burst into the Western Asiatic civilization were probably the Aryans whose original homes were in the South Russian steppes and in the lands eastwards to the Caspian Sea. They domesticated the sheep and the cattle and reared the horse in the latter phase of the culture. The battle axes found in their graves emphasise their warlike character. The metal weapons and the wrought silver and gold found from certain great tombs bear resemblance to Akkadian weapons of a similar nature. The first signs of the dispersal of these Indo-European people are seen about 1600 B.C. In Mesopotamia a new dynasty was set up under the Kassites whose monarchs bear Indo-European names. The Mittanis who occupied the district round the head-waters of the Khabur river in the 14th and the 15th centuries B.C. mention the Vedic gods Indra and Varuna, Mitra and the Nasatyas in their diplomatic correspondence. Among the Boghaz Kemi documents is a fragmentary book on chariot racing which uses certain Sanskrit technical terms. Unfortunately archæological evidence about the presence of the Aryans in Persia and India is lacking and we have to depend on literary sources to get an idea of their culture. The Rig Veda datable to C. 1500 B.C. gives a good picture of the Indo-Aryan culture which could be corroborated with archæological evidences from other regions of the early Indo-European colonization. The Veda throws much light on the culture of the time which was confined to the north-west and the Punjab to the west of Ambala. For instance, it speaks of snow-capped mountains and of a great land of rivers, which can only be the Punjab. The society was divided into warriors (Kshatriyas), priests (Brahmanas), agriculturists and tradesmen (Vaisyas), but the concept of caste was unknown. In several of the Indo-Aryan gods more especially in Indra we get a magnified view of the Indo-Aryan chiefs, strong, tawny-bearded, hard fighters and drinkers, using bow and arrow from the chariot and consuming great quantities of beef, porridge and cakes. The Asujan is a cattle raider and above all a destroyer of the enemy's strong-holds —the enemy represented by wealthy, black *dasas* or robbers with an alien culture worshipping the phallus and contemptuous of Aryan practices. The description of the *dasas* perfectly accords with the black proto-Austroloid people of the Indus Valley culture who lived in strongly fortified citadels. From the Vedic evidence it is clear that these forts were built of stone and unbaked bricks, which the Aryans burned or destroyed.

These early Indo-Aryans had an agriculture economy with emphasis on live-stock specially cows and bulls which they kept for milk and beef or farm transport. Barley was grown and fields were tilled by ox-drawn plough. The ripe corn was cut with a knife or a sickle, was bundled into sheaves, thrashed and winnowed and then probably stored. Hunting was also practised. The flocks included both sheep and goats ; and the wool which came from the sheep was spun and woven by the women. The horses were used to draw chariots in war or sport. The thatched

wooden houses were rectangular in shape and probably divided into several compartments. The central hearth was the focus of household rites. The house was provided with roasting spits and bronze cauldrons, flesh forks, saddle querns, pestles and mortars and pottery. The drinks included mead and beer. The clothes were embroidered. The women wore ear-rings, neck ornaments, anklets and rings. Specialised crafts included smithery and carpentry while copper and bronze implements were extensively used. The community held periodic assemblies in halls which often became a gamblers' paradise with very high stakes. Musical instruments such as cymbals, drums, reed flutes, lute and a seven stringed lyre were well known. The people also enjoyed dancing.

It is possible to trace the extension of Aryan culture beyond the Panjab in later Vedic texts, but unfortunately archaeological evidence of Aryan settlement and expansion till the rise of the Mauryas hardly exists. Recently attempts have been made to study the pottery sequences between the Indus Valley culture and the Maurya period. Some painted grey ware of the Gangetic basin decorated with simple bands, criss-cross, concentric circles, dots, etc. has been discovered in Ahichhatra in Bareilly District and Hastinapura (both in Uttara Pradesh) underlying the typical monochrome black polished ware of the Maurya period. This grey ware has been tentatively assigned to C. 500 B.C. The recent excavations at Hastinapura are expected to throw more light on this question.

BUDDHIST MONUMENTS

From the time of the Mauryas, *i.e.*, 4th century B.C., the history of architecture and of the formative arts is clear and can be traced with relative precision.

The earliest monuments of the historical period that have come down to us relate to the Mauryan period from which time onwards the main currents are pretty clear. The Mauryan monuments include certain caves in the Barabar hills near Gaya, the remains of a pillared hall and wooden palisade near Patna (ancient Pataliputra), a number of stupas at different places, built of large sized bricks traditionally attributed to Asoka, and a wealth of minor antiquities such as sculptures, terracottas, beads, etc., recovered in the excavations at Patna, Taxila (Bhir Mound), and Sarnath and in course of the sewage operations at Patna. Special mention must be made here of the stupa at Pirahwa opened by Peppé in 1898, which yielded a large stone box containing an inscribed steatite or soap-stone reliquary with a number of relics and beautiful precious stones now preserved at the Indian Museum, Calcutta. The inscription written in characters of the 4th-3rd century B.C., speaks of the relics being of the Buddha himself and enshrined by his kinsmen, the Sakyas.

Asoka's edicts—The rock and pillar edicts of Asoka (*circa* 272-232 B.C.), deserve special mention. His major rock edicts are engraved in seven places, ranging from Shahbazgarhi in the Peshawar District in Pakistan to Yerragudi in the Kurnool District in Madras. Among the thirteen pillars of Asoka (besides the Elephant capital of a 14th at Sankisa and a fragment of a 15th at Banares) ten bear his inscriptions. Of these the Lauriya-Nandangarh column in the Champaran District, Bihar, is practically uninjured.

The Mauryas were followed in the second century B.C. by the Sungas in the east, while in north-west Græco-Bactrian rulers were gradually extending their sway. The Buddhist stupa at Bharhut (Nagaud in central India) is the most typical and remarkable monument of this period illustrating the simple but expressive character of the art. Besides dedicatory inscriptions, the labels inscribed on the Bharhut panels are of unique importance. Antiquities of this period particularly terracotta figurines with exquisite ornamentation have been found in the excavations of city sites all over the north, notably Kosam and Bhita near Allahabad, Ahichhatra near Bareilly, and at Banares and Patna.

Sanchi—The best preserved in the series of early Buddhist monuments are the magnificent Buddhist remains at Sanchi in Bhopal State. Here the main stupa of which the core probably belongs to the time of Asoka, was later faced with stone and surrounded by a stone railing with four great gateways, one at each cardinal point, sometime about the first century B.C. Besides the stupas, a number of other buildings, temples, apsidal halls and monasteries of different periods form a splendid galaxy, illustrating the principal phases of the religion of the Buddha, from its early days to its decline.

Taxila—The extensive remains of the ancient city of Taxila, near Rawalpindi in Pakistan, are among the most important in the land, constituting three different cities that flourished in adjacent sites in successive epochs and a number of monastic establishments centered around stupas, situated in the suburbs or perched on the tops of hillocks in the vicinity. For over a quarter of century, Sir John Marshall's labours here have served to elucidate the splendid history and culture of this centre, the meeting-place of the three great civilizations of Greece, Persia, and of India and Pakistan.

The most prosperous of the cities was an Indo-Scythian city, now known as Sirkap, dating from a century on either side of the Christian era with regularly planned streets, houses and palaces, the antiquities from which including exquisite jewellery, beads, coins, all kinds of household objects and pottery, etc., form the bulk of the exhibits of the fine museum on the spot.

Mathura—Mathura, one of the most important religious and art centres in the north from ancient times was galvanised into activity perhaps from the beginning of the Christian era, if not earlier. Here the abundance of red sandstone in the neighbourhood was availed of by the followers of all religions and some of the earliest Brahmanical and Jain images were manufactured here in a peculiarly attractive and playful though sensuous art. From Mathura the Buddha image and some of the Hellenistic motifs travelled further to the east and south and even to the distant Buddhist school of the lower Krishna valley as at Amaravati, Nagarjunikonda and other places. By the fourth century A.D. the Hellenistic element in native art was, however, completely absorbed when under the stimulus of the Gupta Empire it reached its golden age.

GUPTA AGE

The rise of the Gupta dynasty early in the fourth century was a signal for the high water mark of Hindu achievement in literature, art and sculpture.

The best sculpture of this period has been found at Sarnath, Mathura, Deogarh and Garhwa in Uttar Pradesh, while examples of terracotta and minor arts have been found in all the excavations in the north. Sarnath, where Buddhism first saw the light of day, was the most prosperous centre of Buddhism at this time and, significantly enough, is the centre of a Buddhist revival in India, the Mulagandhakuti vihara founded here by the Mahabodhi Society, having received from the Government of India three Buddhist relics recovered from excavations at Nagarjunikonda in Madras, Mirpurkhas in Sind and Taxila in Punjab (Pakistan).

In the field of religion the Brahmanical faith was steadily in the ascendency while Buddhism still held its own, the intellectualism of the age finding expression in a broad spirit of tolerance. Simplicity of conception and restrained ornament is the keynote of the architecture of this period, examples of which are found at Sanchi, Bhumara, and Deogarh in stone and Bhitargaon, Ahichhatra and other places in brick. A well known monument of the Gupta period is the iron pillar standing in the middle of the open court of the mosque at the Qutb near Delhi, which has an inscription referring to King Chandra (identified with Chandragupta II *circa* A.D. 379-413). It is surprising to find that a bar of wrought iron of such dimension should have been made at this early period and still more surprising that not a speck of rust appears anywhere on it in spite of the weather action of 15 centuries. Other interesting examples of wrought iron are the beams from Konarak, 12th century, and the iron pillar at Dhar in Central India, dating back to the time of the Paramara King Bhoja early 11th century.

INSCRIPTIONS

We now come to inscriptions, of which vast numbers have been brought to light and which are particularly numerous in south India. They have been engraved on varieties of materials, but principally on stone and copper. The former are mostly associated with temples of which they record the construction or donations, while the copper plate records are usually grants of land made by kings on special occasions. In either case, the mention of the exploits of the donor and his ancestors and the dates (where specified) give the student of history, valuable contemporary material.

The earliest of these are found incised in two distinct kinds of alphabet, known as Brahmi and Kharoshthi, the latter being confined to the north-west of the sub-continent. Brahmi was read from left to right, and from it have been evolved all the modern scripts of India. The Kharoshthi script was written from right to left, and was a modified form of the ancient Aramaic alphabet introduced into the north-west of the sub-continent during the period of the Persian domination in the 5th century B.C. It was prevalent up to the 4th century A.D., and was supplanted by the Brahmi.

The earliest datable inscriptions are the celebrated edicts of Asoka to which a reference has been made above. One group of this has been engraved on rocks, and another on pillars. They have been found from Shahbazgarhi 40 miles north-east of Peshawar in Pakistan to Nigliva in the Nepal Tarai, from Girnar in Saurashtra to Dhauli in Orissa, from Kalsi in the Lower Himalayas to Yerragudi in the Kurnool District of Madras showing by the way the vast extent of territory held by Asoka.

The reference in his Rock Edicts to the five contemporary Greek Princes, Antiochus II of Syria, Ptolemy Philadelphus, and so forth is exceedingly interesting, and fixes B.C. 269 as the date of his coronation. His Rummindei pillar inscription, again, discovered in Nepal Tarai, now settles beyond all doubt, the birth-place of Buddha which was for long disputed. Another noteworthy record is the inscription of the Besnagar Pillar, at Besnagar, near Bhilsa in Central India, which records the erection of this column, a Garuda Pillar, in honour of Vasudeva by Heliodoros, son of Dion, an envoy of King Antialkidas of Taxila. Heliodoros is herein called a *Bhagavata* which shows that though a Greek he had become a Hindu and a Vaishnava. Another inscription worth noticing in this connection is that of Cave No. 10 at Nasik, in which Ushavadata, who calls himself a Saka or an Indo-Scythian, granted three hundred thousand kine and sixteen villages to gods and Brahmans and annually fed one hundred thousand Brahmans. Here is another instance of a foreigner having embraced Hinduism.

For the last fifteen years Indian epigraphy has received even greater attention, though unfortunately, owing to the exigencies of World War II the publication and interpretation of Indian epigraphs had practically stopped. Discoveries include copper plate inscriptions of the Salankayana dynasty of the 4th century A.D.; the epigraph of the Pandava of Mekala establishing the presence of a new dynasty; the Banaras plate of Hariraja (5th century) of Sura dynasty; the inscribed plates of the Nala dynasty of southern Madhya Pradesh and a large number of Pallava, Chola and Chalukyan plates which throw much light on the history of India from the 7th to the 11th century.

Among the stone inscriptions discovered during this period mention may be made of the Bandhogarh cave inscriptions of Bhimasena, Pothasiri, Bhattadeva, Sivamagha and Vaisravana which provide a great deal of information about the history of central India in the second century A.D. An interesting stone inscription from Ghantasala in the Krishna District, dating to C. 300 A.D. records the name of a sea captain thereby establishing the fact that the village was an important port in ancient times. A large number of stone inscriptions from south India dating from the 7th to the 11th century also materially add to our knowledge of Indian history and culture.

The part played by numismatics in reconstructing the continent's ancient history may also be mentioned here. The earliest coins are those of the silver punch-marked series, going back at least to the 4th century B.C., and found all over the land often in large hoards, which are still being systematically studied. Next come the cast coins issued by the various tribes and rulers in the north of the sub-continent. For the Indo-Greek, Indo-Scythian and Indo-Parthian periods, coins are our almost exclusive source of information, having revealed the names of scores of rulers, otherwise unknown. The entire genealogy, succession and regnal years of the kings of Saurashtra and surrounding territories, known as the Western Kshatrapas (2nd to 4th centuries A.D.) has been built up on the numerous coins issued by them.

Within the last ten years striking progress has been made in the study of ancient Indian numismatics which has greatly increased our knowledge of Indian history during those periods which were comparatively obscure hitherto. The Magha coins found from eastern Uttara Pradesh, Kausambi, and of the Satavahana kings have been closely studied and interpreted by various scholars. The Mahishaka coins from Hyderabad State reveal that the Sakas had penetrated into the Deccan and support the Pauranic allusions to Mahishaka dynasty. The most important numismatic discovery of recent years is the hoard of Gupta coins found from Bayana in Rajasthan. It contains several types of Gupta coin the most interesting being a coin of Chandragupta II receiving gifts from Vishnu, the tutelary deity of the Guptas.

ARCHÆOLOGICAL DEPARTMENT

A note on the function and organization of the Archæological Departments in the country will not be out of place here.

The work of the Archæological Department is primarily two-fold, conservation, and research and exploration. None but spasmodic efforts appear to have been made by Government in these directions till 1870 when they established the Archæological Survey of India and entrusted it to General (afterwards Sir) Alexander Cunningham, who was also the first Director-General of Archæology. The first systematic step towards recognising official responsibility in conservation matters was taken by Lord Curzon's Government who established most of the Archæological Circles that now obtain, placed them on a permanent footing and united them together under the control of a Director-General, provision being also made for subsidising local Governments out of imperial funds, when necessary. The Ancient Monuments Preservation Act was passed for the protection of historic monuments and relics especially in private possession and also for State control over the excavation of ancient sites and traffic in antiquities.

Under the direction of Sir John Marshall, first Director-General of Archæology under Lord Curzon's scheme, a comprehensive and systematic campaign of repair and excavation was prosecuted and at present the Central Government bears all expenditure in connection with the preservation and maintenance of monuments, as well as with excavation and research. Under later Directors-General it was continued with equal vigour and the result of it is manifest in the present altered conditions of many old and historic buildings and in the scientific excavation of buried sites such as Taxila (in Pakistan), Pataliputra, Sanchi in Bhopal, Sarnath near Banares, Nalanda in Bihar, Paharpur, and Nagarjunikonda in Madras, in the Indus Valley at Harappa in Punjab (Pakistan) and Mohenjo-daro in Sind and at Ramnagar (ancient Ahichchhatra) in Bareilly District, where an extensive walled town inhabited from before the fourth century B.C. to the ninth century A.D. has been unearthed stratum by stratum with far-reaching results for the study of archæology throughout the sub-continent's age-long history. Dr. R. E. Mortimer Wheeler, the late Director-General of Archæology in India, opened an excavation training centre at Taxila in 1944, where a large number of students were trained in the latest methods of archæological excavation. He also carried out excavations at the ancient port of Arikemedu near Pondicherry, which have yielded vestiges of Roman intercourse and have thus helped in the dating of an associated Indian culture of the 1st and 2nd centuries A.D.

In 1947, excavations were carried out at Brahmagiri and Chandravalli in the northern part of Mysore State. At the former site, several megalithic burials known as 'cists' and 'pit-circles' were uncovered. These belonged to a period between *circa* 200 B.C. and A.D. 50. Besides, remains of a crude chalcolithic culture (*circa* 800 B.C.-*circa* 200 B.C.) those of the Andhra culture (1st to 3rd century A.D.), were also obtained. At Chandravall remains of only the 'Megalithic' and 'Andhra cultures' were obtained. During 1948, excavations were undertaken under the direction of Mr. B. B. Lal at a site called Sisupalgarh near Bhuvanesvar in the State of Orissa. Here, a fort, roughly square on plan, with each side measuring about ¾ mile was brought to light. The fortification wall, now standing upto an average height of 25 to 30 feet, is pierced through by eight large gateways, two on each side. Around the fort flows a streamlet which seems to have served as a moat. The fort was built about 200 B.C. and seems to have been under continuous occupation till about the 4th century A.D.

The explorations conducted by the Deccan College Post-Graduate and Research Institute, Poona, in Gujarat have revealed the existence of two Stone Age cultures in the region, the first was in existence about 2,500, years ago and the second belonged to a time just before the beginnings of agriculture. A remarkable feature of the second culture is the existence of fossilized human skeletons and a large number of animal remains.

In 1945-46, the Institute excavated the ancient site of Brahmapuri at Kolhapur on behalf of the former Kolhapur State. This brought to light the existence of well-built brick houses, obviously part of a large city, which was in commercial contact with Rome, about 2,000 years ago. The excavations also gave an idea of the vicissitudes through which Kolhapur had passed since then. The Institute has also been conducting prehistoric explorations in Andhra and Karnatak, which have furnished valuable clues for correlating the various Stone Age cultures of the two regions. In 1949 it invited, in co-operation with the Government of India, Prof. F. E. Zeuner of London University to study the climatic phases and environment of Stone Age Man in India.

Museums—The Archæological Survey of India has devoted great attention to the organization of museums as centres of research and education. It maintains the archæology section of the Indian Museum at Calcutta, small museums at the Forts at Delhi and the Central Asian Antiquities Museum at New Delhi. Local Museums have also been established at the excavated sites of Sarnath and Nalanda, with the object of keeping the principal movable antiquities recovered at these sites in close association with the structural remains to which they belong.

Duplicates of antiquities from Mohenjo-daro and Harappa have been widely distributed among other museums.

The epigraphical material dealt with by the Archæological Survey has enabled the history of the various dynasties of the sub-continent to be established on a firmer basis and in greater detail. The "Epigraphia Indica" is now in the 27th volume, a revised edition of the Asoka inscriptions has been recently published, while the companion volume of post Asokan Brahmi inscriptions is under preparation along with two others devoted to the records of the Gupta and Kalachuri epochs. The volume of work done in south India, which is particularly rich in lithic records, will be apparent from the fact that over 20,000 inscriptions have been copied and noticed in the Annual Reports on south Indian epigraphy and a large number published *in extenso*.

Archæological Departments exist in a number of States. Prominent among these must be mentioned Hyderabad, Mysore, Madhya Bharat, Bombay and Rajasthan. In Hyderabad the systematic and scientific treatment of the frescoes at Ajanta is an outstanding achievements of the Archæological Department of the State. Besides this, attention has been devoted to the rock-cut temples at Ellora and many other structural temples. Among the Islamic monuments the great mosque of Gulbarga and the Bahamani mosque at Bidar have been fully conserved. Of late, systematic excavation of ancient sites as at Maski and Paithan has been a regular feature of the Department's work, the latest excavations at the Andhra city site of Kondapur and at Kallur in Raichur being fraught with results of immense importance.

The Mysore Archæological Department has completed nearly half a century of its existence. The first Director, Mr. B. L. Rice, published some 10,000 inscriptions in 12 volumes of the Epigraphia Karnatica. This progress has been well maintained, and the conservation work has rescued many famous temples, such as the Kesava temple at Somanathpur, and the temples at Belur and Halebid. Excavations conducted at Chandravalli and Brahmagiri have been very fruitful.

In Madhya Bharat the Department established in 1913 has done excellent work in exploration of ancient sites, such as Pawaya, Ujjain, Besnagar and Mandasor. The conservation of the Bagh caves and other ancient monuments and the maintenance of a good museum are among the other achievements of the Department.

In Rajasthan excavations initiated by Rai Bahadur Daya Ram Sahni have revealed the existence of a unique Buddhist establishment at Bairat and a city site near the Sambhar Lake. The excavations at Rairh, an ancient commercial and industrial mart, have brought to light large hoards of punch-marked and other coins of early date, and the work now started at the great site of Karkotanagar bids fair to assume great importance.

The Archæological Department of Bombay State has done valuable work in the listing of monuments and the exploration of several sites including Amreli and Pattan.

The amended Ancient Monuments Preservation Act has established a system of licenses for scientific excavations to non-official bodies. The first Society to take part in this work was the American School of Indian and Iranian Studies which, co-operating with the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, organized an expedition for work at Chanhudaro in Sind in 1936. Here several phases of the pre-historic culture of the Indus Valley represented by Harappa were unearthed. Unfortunately the work was discontinued after the first season. The University of Calcutta conducted excavations at Bangarh in north Bengal for a number of years with success and the Punjab Exploration Fund did good work at the site of Bhera now in Pakistan. Recently the University of Allahabad with the active co-operation of the Department of Archæology of the Government of India has undertaken short excavations at the ancient site of Kausambi in the Allahabad District where some work was done previously by the Department.

ARCHITECTURE

THE first comprehensive work, accessible to lay readers, to give a history of styles in architecture in the Indian sub-continent is Mr. Percy Brown's *Indian Architecture* in two volumes which marks a definite advance in the treatment of the subject over Fergusson's *Indian and Eastern Architecture* which, for many years, was considered to be the standard work.

The chief characteristics of our architecture, especially in its later stone phase, are (*a*) its use of heavy masses ; (*b*) construction based on vertical not lateral pressure, *i.e.* without true arches or true domes ; (*c*) its plastic treatment and close relationship with sculpture, (*d*) its undeveloped treatment of space and (*e*) its spiritual significance and symbolism.

HINDU STYLES

In Harappa and Mohenjodaro and other sites of the Indus valley extensive cities have been discovered. These cities dominated by mighty fortresses were built from C. 3000—2000 B.C. by a people whose chief occupation was trading. The buildings, of a type closely related to sumerian are executed in brick in "English bond", and are plain, functional and without great artistic merit. They are mainly houses, store houses, baths and wells and no certain traces of temples have yet been found. The city drainage system was perfect. The corbelled arch was used, the true arch being unknown.

With the invasion of the Aryan tribes who destroyed these *purs* a new architecture came into existence which, originating from the village, developed into the town and palace architecture of the epic period. Wood and clay being the only building material, hardly any visible traces of this period exist. The main forms were the long house with a vaulted roof constructed with bamboo or reed and with horse-shoe shaped "sun windows" on either end ; circular village huts (and perhaps shrines) and the wooden fence with wooden "cowgates". In the south are found "dolmens" covered with a single slab of stone. In Buddha's time towns flourished and in Rajgriha, the ancient capital of Maghada, cyclopean fortifications in stone were carried to a height of 12 feet.

With the establishment of a larger political power under the Mauryas the use of a more permanent stone architecture was gradually introduced. Monuments of this period include (*a*) 13 monolithic edict pillars of Asoka, some with beautifully carved animal figures on bell shaped capitals (Persian influence) ; (*b*) remains of a large, three storied wooden palace near Patna supported on stone pillars ; (*c*) several *stupas* or Buddhist relic mounds built largely in brick and (*d*) a group of rock-cut caves in the Barabar Hills in Bihar.

BUDDHIST STYLES

During almost four centuries, from 200 B.C. to 200 A.D., under two great dynasties, the Sungas of the north and the Andhras of the south, Buddhist zeal gave India some of her most remarkable monuments. In this period the hemispherical *stupas* are stonefaced, with a stone casket and umbrélla on top, surrounded by stone railings in which are set four doorways or *toranas*. All forms though carried out in stone, betray their wooden origin. Sculpture and relief are used profusely to decorate the sacred shrines. The most famous *stupas* are those of Sanchi (Bhopal State), Barhut (C.I.), Mathura, Budh Gaya, Sarnath and Amaravati in Madras State which is the latest and most elaborate one.

To serve priests, monks and lay worshippers, temples and monasteries were built, mainly in brick and wood. Little of these has survived but their exact replicas have come to us, carved from solid rock in the shape of cave temples and monasteries ; the largest caves (Karle, 124 ft. long, 46½ ft. wide and 45 ft. high) reach considerable proportions.

Buddhist caves are generally of two types—*chaityas* or chapels, and *viharas* or monasteries. The *chaityas* are long apsidal buildings with a vaulted roof and a horse-shoe window over the entrance. The interior is divided into a nave for the priests and aisles for the lay worshippers by means of a double row of pillars. At the apsidal end is a *stupa*. *Viharas* are rectangular halls surrounded by cells and having (in a later development) a sanctum in the centre of the backwall containing a Buddha image. The most important groups of caves of this period are those of Bhaja, Kondane, Pitalkhora, Bedsa, Nasik, Ajanta, Ellora, Junnar and Kanheri, all in western India on or near the ancient trade route from Kalyan (near Bombay) and to the West.

BRAHMANICAL ARCHITECTURE

Since the Kushana dynasty (1st—3rd century A.D.) a cultural revolution had set in which in northern India reached its apogee under the Imperial Guptas and their successors (ca. A.D. 350—750), in the south under the Pallavas (7th—9th centuries A.D.). Buddhism and Jainism were slowly ousted by Saivism and Vaishnavism, and a new Brahmanical temple architecture developed. Wood architecture was gradually replaced by stone masonry. Builders used a simple construction of massive pillars and brackets supporting heavy beams and slabs. Genuine arches were not used, corbelled arches rarely. Pillars and beams were, preferably, monolithic, *i.e.* made from single large slabs of stone. Masonry consisted of large, very well worked stones bonded without mortar. The new architecture was evolved from the preceding Buddhist types by means of a process of adaptation, reduction and reduplication. In Indo-Greek and Kushana times simple chapel rooms had been known.

Typical of the Gupta age are temples consisting of a square sanctum with a pillared porch and a flat or slightly sloping roof. They are found in Udaigiri (Bhopal), Sanchi, Tigowa, Bhumara and Nachna Kuthara (C.I.), in Aihole (Kontgudi and other temples), Bhubaneshwar (Parasuramesvar), and Kumaon (Jageswar). Under the successors of the Guptas a small cellar was added on the roof (Lad Khan and Meguti at Aihole) and a closed hall in front. From this developed a step tower of successive simple or decorated storeys, or of successive roofs with dormer windows, first low, later of increasing height (Bhitargaon, Kanpur, Bodh Gaya, Kathiawad, especially Gop, Lakroda, Aihole, Pattadakal, Mamallapuram, also Nepal). The shrine was surrounded by a circumambulation passage, the hall was raised on a high plinth and enlarged by a pillared porch (Deogarh, Aihole, Badami, Pallava temples of Kanchi, as a cave temple—without plinth and tower—at Badami, Ellora, Elephanta, Jogeshwari, etc., mainly under the Chalukyas, Rashtrakutas and Silaharas).

HINDU TEMPLES

The South Indian Temple type was taken over in Greater India. Also in the south it set the model for all later evolutions. At Mamallapuram (Seven Pagodas near Madras) the prototypes of house, village, shrine, Buddhist Chaitya and monastery are still discernible, though often reduced to sculptured decoration ; at Kanchipuram (Conjeeveram) the southern temple type is fully developed, enclosed by a court of subsidiary chapels, and rising in two, three or more clearly distinguished storeys of genuine or merely sculptured shrines. In the Chola temple at Tanjore this central tower rises to gigantic dimensions. Under the Pandya dynasty the entrance (Gopura) becomes the most conspicuous building, towering high above the temple and its various enclosures. Under the Vijayanagar and Madura dynasties immense halls supported by figural pilasters were the fashion (Hampi, Trichinopoly, Srirangam, Madura, Ramesvaram, etc.). The Kailasa of Conjeeveram was imitated by the Chalukyas of Badami (Pattadakal) and the Rashtrakutas (the famous Kailasa of Ellora, and the Dhamnar Caves in Malwa).

In the Ganges valley and Bengal the temple was raised on a step-pyramid ascended by four flights of steps (Paharpur, Ahichhattra, Nandangarh, Greater India also Nepal). This type was inspired by the late Buddhist Stupas, in which the original hemispherical dome was placed on the top of a high drum supported by a step pyramid and crowned by a multiple set of stone umbrellas (Pagoda).

Finally, in Kashmir a special style sprang from a combination of Gupta, Gandhara, Byzantine and local elements in the reign of Lalitaditya-Muktapida (8th century A.D.).

Under the Pratihara dynasty of Kanauj (8th—10th centuries A.D.) at last the classic "Aryan" temple type emerged. The storeys and step roofs of the temple tower, reduced to mere ledges, were fused into one, beehive-shaped tower (Sikhara) crowned by a mighty wheel shaped stone (Amalaka). This spire, again reduplicated and vertically sub-divided, is the main distinguishing mark of the style, in all its many varieties from the Panjab to Bengal, from the Himalayas to Orissa and Maharashtra.

The typical temple consists of a cell which houses the image (*Garbha Graha*—womb-house), and its spire, and a pillared hall (*Mandapa*). Originally not connected, these two parts were joined by an intermediate chamber (*Antarala*). Leading into the main hall are one or several porches (*Ardha-mandapa*). The whole temple may be raised on a platform and surrounded by an enclosure through which leads a gateway (*Gopura*). The 8th—10th centuries show this temple type growing in elaboration, wealth of decoration and symbolic significance, the 11th-12th centuries represent its Golden Age, the 12th-14th its decadence. Later temples are no more than imitations. The best known examples of the early mediæval north-Indian style are the Kalika at Chitorgarh (Mewar), the temples of Osia (Marwar) and Bhubaneshwar (Orissa) of the classic phase Khajuraho and Udayesvar (C.I.), Modhera (Gujarat) and Somnath-Patan (Saurashtra), and Sinnar and Ambarnath (Deccan) ; of the late phase Dilwara (Mount Abu) and Konarka (Orissa).

DRAVIDIAN TEMPLES

The southern (Dravidian) temples have already been mentioned. In the Deccan an intermediate style flourished under the Chalukyas of Kalyani, Yadavas, Rattas, Kakatiyas and Hoysalas. Most famous are the Hoysala temples in Mysore, at Belur, Somnathpur, etc. Its last phase is the so-called Hemadpanthi style.

Pillars developed from rectangular posts to columns with 8, 16, 32 sides, or combinations of these latter ; in Gupta times they were often fluted. Brackets, which were at first plain, were then rounded off, indented, set crosswise, decorated with flying godlings, transformed into supporting dwarfs (Kichakas). Capitals imitate either cushions (mainly Deccan and south), or "pot and foliage" (north). Southern columns generally are very slim, with a very broad abacus. Later northern columns dissolve into storeys of arched niches and chapels in relief, enclosing dancing nymphs and gods. Brackets and merely decorative arches are treated as dryads, dancing nymphs or flower garlands carried by dwarfs or emerging from the mouths or tails of dragons. Walls are organized by a system of vertical projections and recesses, horizontal mouldings, and niches enclosed by columns and pentroofs. Pediments are decorated with semi-circular windows. The roof rises, on the top of a rounded or sloping pentroof, in a system of chapels and miniature Sikharas.

The best book on this subject is *The Hindu Temple* by Stella Kramrisch.

INDO-MUSLIM ARCHITECTURE

This begins with the 13th century after the permanent occupation of India by the Muslims. Their first mosques were constructed of the materials of Hindu and Jaina temples, and sometimes with comparatively slight alterations. The *Quwwat-ul-Islam* mosque near the Qutb Minar in Delhi and the *Arhai-din-ka-jhompra* mosque in Ajmer are the best examples of this kind. However, gradually new methods and principles of construction were introduced from Persia and other Islamic countries of the West. The Muslims brought the arch and the true dome, they used mortar (which became necessary because of the lateral pressure exercised by arches) and they introduced novel types of buildings (the mosque and the tomb). They laid the main emphasis on the perfection and the proportions of interior spaces which the temple builders had rather neglected.

The early "Pathan" architecture, especially of Delhi, was massive and at the same time characterised by elaborate richness of ornamentation. The forms in fashion under the Ghoris, Mamluks and Khiljis (extension of Quwwat-ul-Islam, tomb of Iltutmish, Jamat Khana at Nizam-ud-din, etc.) go back to the Saljuq style of Persia before the Mongol invasions. The Qutb Minar is the highest and finest example of a minaret and tomb tower type well known from Ghazni, Turkistan, Armenia and Asia Minor. On the other hand the Tughluq style (Tughluqabad, mausoleum of Ghiyazuddin Tughluq, Bijai Mandal, etc.) with its sloping plain walls, represents an indigenous creation based on military architecture.

With the disintegration of the multi-national Muslim state a variety of local styles developed. Under Firoz Shah and the Kashmiri, Sharqi, Sayyid and Lodi sultans Mongol and Timurid Persian art became influential (high mosque screens, glazed tiles). Under the later sultans of Delhi Hindu features infiltrated (Lodi Tombs at Delhi). In Malwa a similar architecture flourished at Mandu, etc. The apogee of "Pathan" art was reached under the Suri sultans (Purana Kila at Delhi; Sher Shah's tomb at Sasaram in Bihar).

In the provinces, however, a reaction set in. The sultans of Gujarat (Ahmedabad, Champaner, etc.) and Bengal (Gaur, etc.) adapted the local Hindu tradition to Muslim needs.

"Of the various forms which the Saracenic architecture assumed," says Fergusson, "that of Ahmedabad may probably be considered to be the most elegant." It is notable for its carved stone work; and the work of the perforated stone windows in Sidi Sayyid's mosque, the carved niches of the *minars* of many other mosques, the sculptured *Mihrabs* and domed and panelled roofs are so exquisite that they can challenge comparison with anything of the sort executed elsewhere at any period. No other style is so essentially Hindu.

The Bahmani sultans of Gulbarga and Bidar in the Deccan, who were, so to speak, wardens of the frontier against the Rajas of Vijayanagar, took over without any reservations the architecture of Mongol, Timurid Persia and Turkistan. The Madrasa of Mahmud Gawan at Bidar and many other buildings are utterly foreign. But after the fall of Vijayanager this attitude changed. In Bijapur, Golconda, and later in Bidar and Ahmednagar (including Daulatabad). Hindu influence was strongly felt. Hindu architecture was not copied, but forms of Hindu industrial art were grafted on Persian architecture, and the Persian forms were reinterpreted in a Hindu, sculptural spirit. In Bijapur this later Deccani style achieved perfection, especially in the Mihtar Mahal, Sat Manzil and Ibrahim Rauza. On the other hand Ottoman Turkish influence is also found, and the Persian halls on pillars or gigantic arches (Gagan, Anand, Sangit and Athar Mahal) are loftier than all other halls in India except the hall in Srinagar, Jami Masjid. The Gol Gumbaz, a masterwork of engineering inspired by the Aya Sofia and Salimiya at Stambul, has for long been the largest dome in existence.

As the last imperial dynasty, the Moghuls have left behind the greatest number of well-conserved buildings. Originally they made use of the Safavid style of Persia, a refined variety of Timurid architecture. Like later Bahmani art, it had a predilection for high arches, plain walls decked with richly painted encaustic tiles; domes, however, were high and bulbous. Already in Humayun's time the tile work began to be replaced by the mosaic of variously coloured stone slabs, developed in India since the Tughluq dynasty (Humayun's Tomb and neighbouring buildings in Akbar's time). Since his alliance with the Rajputs, Akbar encouraged an eclectic style, incorporating Lodi, Suri, Malwa, Gujarati-Muslim and especially Hindu forms. The palaces, mosques and mausolea of Fathepur Sikri bear witness to a passionate quest for a new universal style; in Agra Fort, in Jahangir's palaces at Agra and Lahore, Ajmer, Mandu, etc. the final results can be seen. After the victory of Muslim orthodoxy in Jahangir's last years it was again abandoned in favour of another highly sophisticated synthesis of late Safavi-Persian and earlier Indo-Muslim styles, executed in white marble, costly stones and painted stucco. The masterpieces of this style are the tomb of Itimad-ud-daula at Agra. The Agra Fort, the Taj Mahal, the Red Fort and City of Delhi and the Shishmahal at Lahore. The Taj Mahal (mausoleum of the empress Mumtaz Mahal) and the Moti Masjid are unsurpassed in their purity and elegant restraint and yet dreamlike romance. Under Aurangzeb this classic harmony was disturbed by another dynamism, a preference for tension and curves, naturalism and involution of ornament (Moti Masjid in Delhi, Bibi-ka Rauza at Aurangabad). Under Muhammad Shah, at the court of the Nawabs of Oudh, and of the Nizam, the Rajput, Sikhs and Marathas a picturesque late Mughal art experienced a last heyday (Qudsia Bagh and Safdar Jang's Tomb at Delhi; Lahore; Faizabad and Lucknow; Jaipur, Udaipur, Bikaner, Amritsar, Lahore). In the Panjab the Persian style of encaustic tiles survived through the 17th century, and in the 18th was revived by the Kalhoras and Talpurs of Sind.

MODERN ARCHITECTURE

With the arrival of Europeans, western styles of architecture were soon introduced. The Portuguese built churches and palaces in an agreeable baroque style. The early British colonial style of which many pleasant examples survive, especially in South India, was appealing in its simplicity and its clever adaptation to the local climate. During the 19th century public buildings were erected in a hybrid style composed of classic, romanesque, Gothic and Indian elements comparable with the derivative styles of the Victorian epoch, in Europe. In more recent times, three schools of thought have fought for supremacy; the first propagating a revival of indigenous art as still practised by Hindu and Muslim "master builders" surviving in Rajasthan and other parts of the country; the second a renaissance of the Gupta tradition (Sris Chandra Chatterjee) and the third proclaiming the development of a modern architecture on western lines. The western school has found the widest acceptance. The work of building the new capital in Delhi was entrusted to Sir Edwin Lutyens and Sir Herbert Baker. This most ambitious scheme, incorporating the design and planning of a whole new city, has led to a new style of official architecture, the merit of which is still a controversial question. The Hyderabad experiment, blending Hindu and Muslim with Mamluk-Egyptian and European features has been less successful. Frank Lloyd Wright and Carbusier exercise considerable influence at present. However, the contemporary use of reinforced concrete structures, though indubitably cheaper, safer and faster, emphasises the dangers of standardisation and suppression of national character. At present a young generation of architects fully trained in modern methods of construction and yet conscious of the glorious artistic heritage of their country is forming a new style still experimental but already with an individual note of its own.

LITERATURE

Modern Indian Literature

THE common characteristics of present-day literary aspiration and activity in India in the main are two; namely, an attitude of realism and an angle of world-vision as against narrow nationalism of the immediate past. The result is a kind of scientific humanism. Man is the hub of the universe, but man as understood with the aid of the scientist's gospel and gadgets. But soon the study of man in all his integralness, including his entity as Spirit, will become the aim of Indian literature, thus falling into line with an age-long tradition.

In this bird's-eye view of current Indian literatures only names of important authors and here and there of their well-known works can be given. And this is all that is attempted here together with an indication of the trend towards the future of the Indian literatures.

SANSKRIT

Sanskrit language and literature maintained a steady and all-round progress in 1950. On several occasions Ministers of the Central Government and of States and State Governors have exhorted people to take more assiduously to the study of Sanskrit. Sanskritists, for their own part are trying to bring public opinion round to the view that the study of Sanskrit should be made compulsory for all High School students, the argument being that a study of Sanskrit would develop in them accuracy of thought and exactness of expression. A conference sponsored by the U.P Government discussed the advisability of introducing uniformity of standards in the Sanskrit examinations held in different parts of the country. The Government of Bombay have appointed a Committee to go into the question of the improvement and reorganization of the Pathasalas in the State of Bombay. A new Association was inaugurated at Nagpur for the propagation of Sanskrit. Two other interesting and significant developments are the introduction of the study of Sanskrit in Iran and readings from Sanskrit literature broadcast by All India Radio. Dr. C. Kunhan Raja, formerly Professor and Head of the Department of Sanskrit in the University of Madras was appointed Professor of Sanskrit in a private academy called Anjuman-e-Iran-Shinasi (Institute of Iranian Studies). The University of Teheran was also considering a plan for founding a Chair of Sanskrit at the University.

Turning to literature proper we find that the critical edition of the *Mahabharata* was progressing satisfactorily at Poona. Plans for a critical edition of the other national epic, the *Ramayana*, were recently announced from Bombay. The Deccan College P. G. Research Institute's project of the Sanskrit-English Dictionary on historical principles is making good progress and the Central Government have promised a grant of five lakhs of rupees provided another five lakhs are collected by the Institute from other donors. The Girvanavagvardhini Sabha of Poona holds regular fortnightly lectures in Sanskrit and elsewhere also Sanskrit is fluently used for business purposes in assemblies and conferences of Pandits. The work of coining Sanskrit equivalents for scientific and technical terms is in hand at the International Academy of Indian Culture of Dr. Raghu Vira at Nagpur.

Critical editions of important unpublished texts were published almost every month. The Madras Government Oriental Series (publication of manuscripts in Sanskrit and other State languages in the libraries of the State) were augmented by four interesting works in Sanskrit. The Sanskrit translation of the Indian Constitution is nearing completion under the editorship of Pandit Laksmanasastri Joshi and Mr. P. V. Kane and others. Original works were the *Visvesvara Smrti* of Pandit Visvesvaranatha Reu, and the *Prakrti-Vilasa-Kavya* of Panditaraja Krishnamurthi Sastri, the Sanskrit Poet Laureate of Madras which is an exquisite collection of eight short poems, singing the beauty of natural phenomenon in its various aspects. The *Tukaramacarita* of Pandita Kshama Row is another noteworthy original poem on the great Maharashtrian Saint, Tukaram. There is a powerful section of Hindi writers which is in favour of eschewing foreign words in Hindi and substituting them by Sanskrit words.

Thus it will be seen that Sanskrit is not a dead language. In one sense it is very much alive as it is used for religious rites throughout the country by most Hindus. It is also increasingly recognized that for proper advancement of the regional languages, the study of Sanskrit is necessary.

HINDI

As a result of the decision of the Constituent Assembly Hindi has become the national language of India and has acquired a new prestige. It is the mother tongue of more than two hundred million people and is rich in epic and lyric poetry. Chandbardai, the court poet of Prithviraj, is supposed to be the first bard while later the literature was greatly enriched by the genius of Vidyapati, Soordas and Tulsidas who stand out as the foremost poets of the cult of devotion. Tulsidas's *Rama Charit Manas* has been widely popular and worshipped in every part of India, from the Himalayas down to the shores of the Indian Ocean for the last three centuries. Jaisi, the author of *Padmavat*, was the first romantic poet and Kabir and Mira, the Rajput Queen of Chitor, were the great mystics. But these poets wrote either in Dingal or in Brija Bhasha, Oudhi or Rajasthani. The Bhakti period of Hindi literature, was followed with the advent of the Moghuls by the age of expert technicians, who under the patronage of eminent rulers of the age built up the treasure house of Hindi poetry and illuminated the evershining Reeti Yug in which love in its various manifestations have been richly and dexterously portrayed. Bihari, Dev, Keshavdas, Bhusan and Matiram, five of the nine gems of Hindi poetry, belong to this golden age of Hindi literature.

The Hindi literature of today can largely be traced to the efforts of a man Bhartendu Harishchandra and an organization Nagari Pracharini Sabha of Kashi which developed Khariboli literature in all its variety and gave it a definite shape. Bhartendu was a remarkable man of versatile genius and he wrote poetry and prose with equal felicity. *Sattya Harishchandra* was his greatest achievement in the field of drama. He was a poet of love, a devotee of Radha Krishna, and throughout the country he was known as a great Vaishnava. He was an ardent patriot too. He raised *Khariboli* to the level of literary language. He evolved Hindi prose also and is rightly described as the father of Hindi drama. Encouraged by Lord Macauley, the Fort William College of Calcutta played an important part in the formation of modern Hindi prose. Lalloojilal, Sadal Mishra, Insha Allakhan and Munshi Sadasukh Lal gave Hindi its present form. Gopalram Gahmari, Devkinandan Khatri and Kishorilal Goswami were the products of the times of Harishchandra. Gahmariji wrote 205, Khatriji 46 and Goswamiji 25 novels. These writers of fiction made Hindi popular with the mass of the reading public. Devakinandan's novel *Chandrakanta* alone created a taste for literature among more than ten lakhs of readers of Hindi. The first two were also the pioneers of detective fiction while Goswami was the first to introduce the study of human character in the Hindi novel. They were followed by Gangaprasad Gupta, Amritlal Chakravarti, Harikrishna Johar, Lajjaram Mehta, Brijnandan Sahal, Jayaradmas Gupta and Pratap Narayan Mishra.

Pandit Mahavirprasad Dwivedi, the editor of *Sarasvati*, took the torch from Bhartendu and fostered the growth of Hindi literature during a critical period. Indeed he dominated Hindi literature for more than half a century. His literary acumen, education and creative faculty were an asset to Hindi. Under his guidance a group of poets and prose writers flourished, chief of whom were Ayodhyasingh Upadhyaya, Maithilisaran Gupta (who is happily still living) Nathuram Shankar Sarma, Rai Deviprasad Purana and Kamta Prasad Guru. The *Priya Pravas* of Upadhyayaji in which the poet successfully introduced Sanskrit meters into Hindi, has already become a classic. The publication of *Bharatbharati* made Guptaji famous overnight. He is undoubtedly the greatest poetic figure flung forth by the Dwivedi era.

The most successful novelist of this era was Premchand. At first he wrote in Urdu but later adopted Hindi as his medium. His *Sevasadan*, *Karmabhumi* and *Godan* has been the joy and inspiration of many. He expounded Gandhian ideology in his stories and raised a note of protest against social conditions that prevailed in the country during the first quarter of the twentieth century. He was also the first to introduce downtrodden peasants and field-labourers in his later work. His short stories can be compared with the best stories of Tagore, Tolstoy or Maxim Gorky. Other great fiction writers of the period are Pt. Sudarshan, Vishwambhar Sharma 'Kaushik', Chandiprasad Hridayesh and Chandradhar Sharma Guleri. Premchand was followed by Jainendra Kumar Brindabanal Verma, a great artist and thinker who wrote *Gadh Kundar* after the style of the English novelist Sir Walter Scott, Ila Chandra Joshi, whose *Sanyasi* brought forth a new style and an unorthodox subject matter, Bhagvati Charan Verma, Vatsyayan, Yashpal, Pahari Usha Mitra, Homvatidevi and several others. A new school of criticism also came into existence led by Mishra Bandhus, Ramchandra Shukla, Shyamsunderdas, Dr. Ram Kumar Verma and Hazariprasad Dwivedi.

Jayashankar Prasad, though a contemporary of Maithili Saran Gupta was the originator of the Chayavadi school of poetry. His *Kamayani* is perhaps the greatest epic of the last half century. He wrote several plays, which have become the proud and immortal possessions of Hindi. He has been the greatest Hindi dramatist of our age. Samitranandan Pant, Nirala and Shrimati Mahadevi are the best representatives of this school of poetry which at one time attained phenomenal popularity in the Hindi world. Pant's *Pullava* is the high water-mark of romantic mysticism and as a creator of symphony he is unique in Hindi verse. Mahadevi Verma whose *Yama* is a highlight, is looked upon as a modern Mira. The late Subhadra Kumari Chauhan achieved distinction as a poetess and her ballad on the Rani of Jhansi became very popular. Makhanlal Chaturvedi, Balkrishna Sharma 'Navin' and 'Dinkar' are the great poets of patriotism.

After the publication of Tagore's *Gitanjali*, prose-poetry came into vogue in Hindi, and the best writer of prose-lyrics of the present day is Shrimati Dineshnandini Dalmia. Acharya Chatursen is one of the greatest living literary figures, whose crowning achievement is the *Vaisali ki Nagar Vadhu*. The drama has its devotees in Madhava Shukla, Makhanlal Chaturvedi, Govind Bhallabh Pant, Lakshminarain Misra and Upendranath Ashka. Seth Govinddas, the dramatist, is a prolific writer, who is also playing a notable part in politics. To counteract provincial tendencies which may jeopardise the future of the Indian Republic it is vitally important that Hindi should develop a national literature of a high order.

ASSAMESE

Modern Assamese literature may be said to date from the publication of *Arunodaya* (1846) and the writers who set the temper of the literature are Lakshminath Baezbarua, poet, short-story writer and dramatist; Hemchandra Goswami, poet and essayist; and Chandrakumar Agarwalla, poet. These writers bridge the last and the present century. With them may be mentioned Padmanath Gohain Barua, poet and novelist; Satyanath Bara, essayist; Rajanikanta Bardaloi, novelist, and Saratchandra Goswami short-story writer. Writers who established themselves before the Second World War are Mahi Bora, Rama Das and Vina Barua (Birinchi Kumar Barua) in short story; Daibyachandra Talukdar and Dandinath Kalita in the novel; Raghunath Chowdhary, Jatindranath Dowerah and Nalinibala Devi in lyric poetry; Atulchandra Hajarika and Jyotiprasad Agarwalla in drama; Suryakumar Bhuyan, Banikanta Kakati, Benudhar Sarma, Dimbeswar Neog in historical and literary prose.

The years following 1942 have been one of social and ideological restlessness and have seen a socialization of the literary temper in a band of younger writers, such as Abdul Malik, Pravin Phukan, Hemkanta Barua and Praphulladatta Goswami, in various fields. Among recent publications may be mentioned an anthology, *Adhunik Assamiya Kavita* (1946); Dr. Banikanta Kakati's *Sahitya Aru Prem* (1949); Abdul Malik's *Beduin* (1949); Benudhar Sarma's *Maniram Dewan* (1950); Dr. Birinchi Kumar Barua's *Purani Assamiya Gadya* (1950).

BENGALI

In the fourteenth century when Chandidas, the first of her great poets, lived and wrote in the Vaishnavic tradition, Bengali already possessed a highly developed literature. It remained devotional in content and poetic in form down to the eighteenth century when prose ushered in the modern era. Prose became the vehicle for the intellectual awakening of the Indian Renaissance, led by Ram Mohan Roy.

The first great prose writer was Bankim Chandra Chatterjee, who wrote his historical novels in a magnificent language of his own. Rabindranath Tagore followed, bringing to prose a sinuous beauty. Sarat Chandra Chatterjee was pre-eminently a teller of tales with social import. Pramatha Chaudhuri gave penetrating clarity to the essay and short story.

In poetry Michael Madhusudan Datta introduced blank verse, composing epics in the heroic style. Subsequent writers reverted to the lyric for which Bengali, because of its sweetness, is a medium par excellence. Tagore brought international recognition to his land and language. His greatest contemporary was Satyendranath Datta.

After First World War all values were subjected to a critical examination. The soldier poet Kazi Nazrul Islam started the revolt against the traditional forms. There was much bold experimenting in form and content both in prose and poetry. Among writers who were notable in this respect were Manindralal Bose, Bibhuti Bhusan Bandyopadhyay, Achintya Kumar Sen Gupta, Premendra Mitra Tarashankar Bandyopadhyay, Sudhindranath Datta, Bishnu Dey, Buddhadeva Bose, Jasimuddin and Annada Sankar Ray. Kazi Abdul Wadud and Sayed Mujtaba Ali scored many successes in belles letteres.

The drama was an innovation of the Renaissance and has yet to come of age. The first plays were social. Historical and mythological subjects followed. Among the more prominent play wrights were Dinbandhu Mitra, Girish Chandra Ghose and Dwijendralal Roy. Tagore developed the mystic play.

The suffering brought by the Second World War left its mark on Bengali literature. Independence was not accompanied by any striking sense of spiritual release. Partition divided the loyalties of writers. The book trade was disrupted. Yet books are published in considerable number and writers of established reputation are not scarce.

Mr. Satinath Bhaduri's novel, *Jagari*, has been an outstanding piece of fiction during recent years, while Mr. Abanindranath Tagore's authobiographical works, Mr. Achintya Kumar Sen Gupta's experiment with the dialect of East Bengal Muslim villagers, Mr. Preman Kumar Atarti's *Mahasthavira Jataka* and Shrimati Bani Ray, have set new styles in writing.

The peasant poet, Nibaran Pundit, has been a new and rich "discovery." Sri Aurobindo's writings have begun re-occupying a large place in the esteem of the public. Among Moslem writers, Humayun Kabir, Kazi Abdul Wadud, Jasimuddin Fazul Rahman and Sayid Ayub Ali and others are coming more and more to the fore. Premchand Mitra's *Agami Kal* is a valuable addition to Bengali literature.

KANNADA

A new vision came into Kannada literature in the early yearly of this century when Muddana wrote his *Ramashwameddha* in a homely style, Shanta Kavi sang the glories of his native land, Panje Mangeshrao brought out his stories for children, and B. Venkatacharya and V. T. Galaganath published their translations of Bengali and Marathi novels. Karibasava Sastry, Cha. Vasudeviah and M. S. Puttanna were others who working through a medium of their own choosing played a distinguished part in the renaissance.

The Literature struck out into newer ways with the succeeding band of workers such as Govinda Pai, B. M. Srikantia, D. V. Gundappa, Masti Venkatesa Iyengar, C. K. Venkata Ramayya, Kailasam, Kerur, M. R. Srinivasa Murthy, Bellave Venkatanaranappa, D. K. Bhardvaj, Alur, T. T. Sharma and others who among themselves covered nearly all the various branches of literature. At this stage one could see that the writers were gradually mastering their technique. Children's literature became more extensive. Books on science were becoming popular, while writers were also reaching out to non-Kannada literature and translating outstanding works. Bendre, Puttappa, Karanth, V. Sitaramiah, Gokak, P. T. Narasimhachar, Mugali, Rajarathnam and others have particularly enrich Kannada literature with a variety of books.

The battle royal between the champions of mass appeal and the advocates of a more aristocratic culture has perhaps, through the efforts of critics, has ended in a compromise in favour of realism. Literature has digested the sharpness of A. N. Krishna Rao working through his novels and short stories and of Jagirdar working through his dramatic compositions. The short story has found its adepts in Ananda, K. Gopalakrishna Rao, M. V. Seetharamiah, Aswatha, C. K. Nagaraja Rao, L. S. Seshagiri Rao, Betageri and others who make up quite a large army. In drama Ksheerasagara, Kaivar Raja Rao, Chi. Sadashiviah, Kallur, N. K. Kulkarni and several others hold the field. Full size novels are being written by Mirji Anna Rao, V. M. Inamdar and T. R. Subba Rao.

Sali, Kahnolkar, Ekkundi, Adiga, Archik Sridhar are outstanding in poetry. A. N. Murthy Rao, Gorur, Nadiger Krishna Rao and others have developed the typical essay. Among the scholars are T. N. Srikantiah, D. L. Narasimhachar, K. V. Raghavachar, Thimmappaih, Panchamukhi, Malvad and others. Padmanabha Puranik, J. R. Lakshmana Rao, R. L. Narasimhaiah, P. Srinivasa Rao and a few more have contributed to scientific literature. M. S. Subramanya Sastry, L. Gundappa, Gurunath Joshi, M. Vasudeva Murthy, R. Vyasa Rao, Siddavanahalli Krishna Sharma, A. Narayanaswamy Iyer have further enriched literature through translations from Sanskrit, Tamil, Hindi, Persian, Bengali and other literatures. Devudu, Hoyisala, T. M. R. Swamy, B. S. Panduranga Rao specialize in children's literature, a field to which of late a good deal of attention has been paid. The contribution of women to Kannada literature is of a considerable order. Goramma, Shyamala, Kalyanamma, Vani, Savithramma and Belagere Janakamma are the well known names.

Historically, then, 1900 or thereabouts saw the beginnings of a new light in Kannada, 1920 gave a definite turn towards modernism, while in the period 1935-40 appeared the group of writers who are still active in their upsurge in the efforts of those who are working in various fields.

MALAYALAM

Rich in poetical works Malayalam Literature has of late developed other literary genre like the short story, the novel, drama, essay, criticism, biography and pen-picture.

In the early decades of the twentieth century three eminent poets, Kumaran Asan, Vallathol Narayana Menon and Ullor S. Parameswara Ayyar came to the front rank from an array of poets experimenting in lyrical poetry. Later appeared Nalappattu Narayana Menon, G. Sankara Kurup, Vennikkulam Gopala Kurup, Vailoppillil Sridhara Menon and Changampuzha Krishna Pillay whose contributions to the lyric are famous. Among them G. Sankara Kurup is regarded as quite the most notable figure.

Novels and short stories existed in Malayalam even before the dawn of the modern era and the names of C. V. Raman Pillay, O. Chandu Menon, Appan Tampuran, M. R. K. C., Ampati Narayana Poduval and Dr. Chelnat readily occur to one's mind. The modern novels and short stories differ greatly from the older ones in technique and phsychology. The present-day writers are specially keen about 'production for the masses'. The best known short story writers are Vaikam Muhammed Basheer, S. K. Pottekkatt, Karoor Nilakandha Pillay, Thakazhi Sivasankara Pillay, Kesavadev and Saraswathi Amma.

Literary criticism is a new branch in Malayalam literature. A Balakrishna Pillay, a versatile scholar and research worker is the most influential of the modern critics. Joseph Mundasseri and Kuttikrishna Marar are others who are well enough known. The best play-wrights of the day are N. Krishna Pillay and Edasseri Govindan Nayar. Dr. Bhaskaran Nayar is a scientist and art-critic rolled into one while P. K. Paramesvaran Nayar is the most successful of the biographers. Eminent scholars like Dr. C. A. Menon, Dr. Goda Varma and Dr. P. K. Narayana Pillay are engaged in research work and their contributions to the cultural heritage of Kerala deserve mention. P. Sridharan Pillay, popularly known by the pen-name 'Sitaraman' is the best living parodist in Malayalam after 'Sanjayan' (M. R. Nayar) who was also the most popular and best loved humourist of the age.

Since the advent of what may be called progressive literature in Malayalam, the writers of Kerala have formed into two distinct groups, the traditionalists and the moderns, Marxists as well as non-marxists. However, the best writers of the day belong to no party and to their positive stand may be attributed the all-round progress made by the Malayalam Language and Literature today.

MARATHI

Marathi has a rich literary tradition dating back to more than six centuries. Modern Marathi Literature, however, has developed mainly after 1870. It owes its inspiration largely to English literature and continues to be influenced by it. The essay has been used as a powerful instrument of social awakening and reform by distinguished authors like Lokahitavadi, Chiplunkar, Agarkar, Tilak, S. M. Paranjpe and N. C. Kelkar. Yet the Marathi essay has not lacked the literary graces.

Keshavasuta liberated Marathi poetry from the traditional forms and content. Balakavi was the poet of nature. Madhav Julian, Yeshawant and others belonging to Ravikiran Mandal have written romantic poetry. Recently Kusumagraj, Rege, Mardhekar and others have been giving expression to varied experiences in a more realistic vein.

Marathi drama contains rich treasures of which Maharashtra is very proud. There are historical and social plays and tragedies and farces

Most Marathi plays deal with social or political problems. Another characteristic of the Marathi stage is its domination by music. The leading play-wrights are Kirloskar, Dewal, Khadilkar, Kolhatkar, Gadakari, Varerkar and Atre.

Hari Narayan Apte, the most powerful Marathi novelist wrote historical romances as well as novels on contemporary social life. V. M. Joshi has written only a few novels, but he has greater insight into life than most Marathi novelists. S. V. Kelkar, editor of the Marathi Encyclopedia wrote novels which evince a wider social outlook and a greater comprehension of social problems. Phadke, Khandekar, and Madkholkar are among the more popular novelists. They have written mainly about love and idealism in the young. Sane Guruji had a Gandhian outlook and was almost as popular. Phadke, Khandekar and Y. G. Joshi have had a long run of popularity as short story writers. Their novels specially those written by the first two tell skilfully constructed stories. Of late new authors like Arvind Gokhale, Bhave, Madgoolkar and Gangadhar Gadgil have enriched the Marathi short story both in respect of form and content.

GUJARATI

Modern Gujarati literature has assumed a progressive form unshackled by tradition. The literature is marked by a great deal of creative energy tempered by realism. A striking feature is its variety. Mahatma Gandhi occupies a pivotal position because of a certain simplicity in his expression which helped to bring literature into the life of the common man. In the process his work lost nothing in literary elegance or depth of meaning. Posthumous publications of Mahadev Desai and Gandhiji continue to enrich Gujarati literature.

The writings of the pioneers of Sanskritic revival of the Sakshar Yuga, Govardhanram Tripathi, Manishankar Bhatt (Kant), Manilal Dwivedi, Narsinrao Divatia, Anandshankar Dhruva, Keshavlal Dhruva, Balvantrai Thakore are still popular. The loss of Mahadev Desai, Jhaverchand Meghani, Gandhiji and Nanalal has been a great blow to the developmet of Gujarati literature.

Vinoba Bhave, Kaka Kalelkar, Mashruvala, Sukhlalji, Harbhai Trivedi, Punyavijayji, Narhari Parikh, Dhansukhlal Mehta, Bhogilal Sandesara, Durgashankar Shastri, Bechardas Doshi, Santbal, Dolarrai Mankad, Kanaiyalal Munshi, Ramanlal Desai, Gaurishankar Joshi (Dhumketoo), Ramnarayan Pathak, Jyotindra Dave, Gopaldas Patel, Maganlal Desai, Chunilal Shah, Lilavati Munshi, Hansa Mehta, Ravishankar Rawal, Keshavram Sashtri, Anantrai Rawal, Vishnuprasad Trivedi and Ratilal Trivedi have all produced work which is marked by deep and serious thought.

Mohanlal Mehta (Sopan), Ninu Desai, Nandkumar Pathak, Pitambar Patel, Chinubhai Patwa, Panalal Patel, Ishvar Petlikar, Gulabdas Broker, Govindbhai Amin, Puratan Buch, Chunilal Madiya, Indra Vasavda, Jayanti Dalal, Shridharani, Darshak, Jaybhikhu, Jyotsna Khanderia, Niranjan Varma, Jaymal Parmar, Bakulesh, Suresh Gandhi, Ashok Harsha belong to the younger generation of writers who are conspicuous in the field of the short story, play and novel.

Tribhuvan Luhar (Sundaram), Sundarji Betai, Chandravadan Mehta, Venibhai Purohit, Manek, Kolak, Raman Vakil, Abuvala Jhinabhai Desai (Sneharashmi), Bhanushankar Vyas (Badarayan), Umashankar Joshi, Avinash Vyas, Indulal Gandhi, and Mansukhlal Jhaveri are some of the younger poets of established merit, whose poems bear unconventional features and realistic sense.

Contemporary literature also includes many translations from English, Bengali, Marathi and Hindi literature. Nagindas Parekh, Kisonsinha Chavda, Bhogilal Gandhi, Gopalrao Vidvans, Prabhudas Gandhi, Bipin Zaveri, Jayant Parmar, Bachubhai Shukla, Ramanlal Soni, and Mohanlal Dhami are some of the men who are distinguished in this field.

Sarta Gujarati Jodani Kosha compiled and published by the Gujarat Vidyapith is now accepted as the standard dictionary.

MAITHILI

The rise of journalism in the early years of the present century brought the modern period in Maithili literature to a culmination. The Age of Chanda Jha saw the rise of the Renascent Mithila (1880 to 1907) as the new patron of letters, the reading public, came into being. Kavishwara Chanda Jha was the first great modern writer. He was a poet, historian and prose writer—all in one.

The field of activity of some of the early masters—Jivana Jha (poet and dramatist), Mahamahopadhyaya Muralidhara Jha (essayist and editor) and Kusheshwara Kumar (poet) was Banares.

From 1909 to 1937 the periodical literature contained the best writing. Sitarama Jha (poet), Raghunandandas (poet and dramatist), Parameshwara Jha (historian), and Laldas were the outstanding names.

The end of this period saw the growth of new lyrical forms and modern fiction.

It is after 1937 that modern tendencies came to full flower. This period has in fact completely revolutionized the literature of Maithili. The language has not yet been able to get its due place in the educational and administrative life of Mithila, but it is today taught in the schools from the primary classes to the M.A. classes and its writers occupy a respectable place in the administration and elsewhere.

There has been a large number of translations from Sanskrit, Bengali and English. A spelling reform on scientific lines has been more or less accepted. A juvenile literature is being developed in all earnestness. In this respect the *Batuka*, a children's magazine, is doing commendable work. The most fruitful branches of prose have been the essay and the novel but the short story has become the most popular single activity in Maithili literature. Among the chief writers today are Mahamohopadhyaya Dr. Umesha Mishra, Pandit Ramanatha Jha, Bholalaladas, Jyotishi Baldeva Mishra, and Prof. Shrikrishna Mishra (essayists); and Prof. Harimohana Jha, Kumara Ganganand Sinha, Yoganand Jha, Upendranatha Jha, Prof. Umanatha Jha and Manamohan Jha (novelists and short story writers).

Poetry has undergone several changes. In form as well as in content the poets of today are very different from the traditional poets of Maithili. Of the old traditional Sanskritist type the leading representatives are: Sitarama Jha, Kashikanta Mishra, Ishanatha Jha, Jivanatha Jha and Kavishekhara Badarinatha Jha. The new poets are many but there are only three who have established themselves - Vaidyanath Mishra Yatri, Raghavacharya, and Chandranatha Mishra Amara.

The famous Kirtaniya Drama of Mithila is today extinct. It has not yet been possible to develop any distinct Maithili stage. Prof. Tantranatha Jha, a versatile poet, has however been instrumental in establishing a tradition of one-act comic plays (Prahasanas). In this form some other dramatists have also succeeded well. For the rest there have been plays of a more or less stereotyped nature.

There are not many women writers in Maithili today who can be compared with those writing in other Indian languages. Shambavi Devi, Arundhati Devi and Shrimati Leela may however be mentioned as representative names.

Maithili has excelled in humour and in the comedy of manners in its fictions. It is gradually freeing itself from the too close influence of Sanskrit and promises to become one of India's most successful regional literatures. There has been a widespread awakening among Maithilas to the inherent beauty and status of their own mother-tongue. The State Government is still slow in giving it full and proper encouragement.

(It may be added as a foot-note that Maithili is spoken in north Bihar by about 2.5 million people and its centre is Darbhanga. The leading newspaper is *Vaidehi* fortnightly, Lalbag, Darbhanga. The leading novelist is Harimohan Jha; the leading writer, Umesha Mishra; poets, Suman, Ishanatha Jha, Madhupa, Yatri, Sitarama Jha, Tantranath, Amara and Raghava. *A History of Maithili* by Jayakanta Mishra gives a most useful account of Maithili.)

ORIYA

The influence of Sanskrit was replaced by that of English and Continental literatures towards the close of the 19th century when Radhanath Rai and Madhusudan Rao flourished as modern poets. They gave a new orientation to Oriya poetry through simplicity of rhythm, diction and imagery. Of a number of epic poems by Radhanath, *Mahayatra*, or the "Journey's End" of the Pandavas, written in blank verse, is considered to be his best. Fakir Mohan Senapati who was a contemporary of these two poets is regarded as the father of modern Oriya prose. His "Six Acres and Eight Decimals" (*Chha Man Ath Gunth*), a novel is a little masterpiece. He was succeeded by a chain of notable writers such as Gangadhar Meher, Chintamani Mahanty, Nanda Kishore Bal and Gopabandhu Das. Of the living authors may be mentioned Pandit Nilakantha Das, Godavarish Misra, Padmacharan Patnaik, and Laxmikanta Mahapatra. Those who nursed Oriya prose to its present prominence were the late Gopal Chandra Praharaj, Viswanath Kar, and Brajasundar Das to which group also belong a number of living writers such as Sri Artaballabh Mahanty, Bipin Behari Rai, Ratnakar Pati, and Sashi Bhusan Rai and Giriji Shankar Rai.

After the First Great War, however, Oriya Literature took a new turn with a new set of values. It suddenly became conscious of the life of the millions of the poor and the downtrodden, of whose spokesman it decided to become. Thus began the *Sabuj* or the modern era under the auspices of the *Sabuj Sahitya Samiti*, a literary association of young authors. Headed by Shri Kalindi Charan Panigrahi, Baikunthanath Patnaik, Annada Shankar Ray, Sarat Chandra Mukherji and Harihar Mahapatra, this association brought to its fold other writers of fame, such as Mayadhar Mansingh, Sachi Routrai, Radhamohan Garnaik and Harish Chandra Baral. Shri Godavarish Mahapatra or the late Kuntala Kumari Devi also belonged to the *Sabuj* class though they did not visibly join the organization.

The *Matira Manisa*, a novel written by Shri Kalindi Charan Panigrahi, was a landmark in Oriya literature still unsurpassed in the field of fiction. Shri Gopinath Mahanty's *Paraja* is a very near approach to it. Shri Kanhu Charan Mahanty has written the largest number of novels and stories. Kalindi Charan, however, stands foremost in prose, poetry and fiction. Shri Ananta Prasad Panda, Nityananda Mahapatra, Ananta Patnaik, Rajkishore Rai, Aswini Kumar Ghosh, Manmohan Misra and Kalicharan Patnaik may also be mentioned as well known authors in the field of drama, poetry and fiction.

PUNJABI

Punjabi literature of today is fast growing into a powerful medium of expression for overfull minds and underfed stomachs. For the first time we find the common man and his problems forming the staple stuff of literature. With the increasing use of folk-tunes, folk-metres, folk-dances and folk-stage by intellectuals the distance between the literateurs and their readers or listeners is being narrowed down.

Gurbakhsh Singh (prose-stylist, story-writer and journalist), Nanak Singh (novelist), Balwant Gargi (play-wright), Mohan Singh (poet), Amrita Pritam (poet), Kartar Singh Duggal (short-story writer) Sant Singh Sekhon (short story writer and play-wright), Gopal Singh Dardi (critic and poet), Mohinder Singh Sarna (short story writer), Sujan Singh (short story writer)

and many others form the vanguard of the present generation. Dr. Mohan Singh who symbolizes a whole movement in literary criticism is as prolific as ever.

A lot of fine work appears in journals like *Punjabi Dunys*, *Lok Sahitya*, *Panj Darya* and *Jiwan Sandesh*.

A welcome feature of the present time is the establishment of institutions dedicated to the encouragement and publication of original and critical works. The Punjabi Department of the PEPSU Government and the Publication Bureau of the Punjab University are two such institutions.

For the first time in the history of the Punjabi language big States like the Punjab and PEPSU have declared Punjabi to be one of the official languages of the State. In the PEPSU all gazetted officers as well as thousands of government employees have been asked to take a test in Punjabi. For the first time, again, M.A. examinations in Punjabi have been instituted, with the result that an elevation of the standard in critical appraisal of literature is taking place.

Already there is a consciousness of the great debt that the Punjabi people owe to their eminent writers. Dhani Ram 'Chatril', the septuagenarian poet, was presented with a beautifully printed Abhinandan Granth (memorial volume) at a representative function.

Dr. Vir Singh (poet, commentator, novelist and prose-writer) was honoured by the Punjab University by the conferment of an honorary degree of Doctor of Oriental Learning.

Punjabi literature today adequately represents the virility, simplicity and colourfulness of the Punjab.

SINDHI

In Sindhi literature the writers who flourished at the beginning of the present century was founded by Dayaram Gidumal, Nirmaldas Fatehchand, Kalich Beg Mirza, Permanand Mewaram, Kauromal Chandanmal, Kewalram Salamatrai, Lilaram Watanmal and Wadhumal Gangaram. Among the writers who hold public attention today are Kishinchand Bewas, Lekhraj Aziz, Hyder Bakhsh Jatoti, Akbar Ali Ayaz, Bherumal Mahirchand, Jethmal Parsram, Lalchand Jagtiani, Usmanali, Ansari, Ram Punjwani, Naraindas Malkani, Hotechand Gurbaxani, Umar Daudpota, Khanchand Daryam, Mangharam Malkani, Assanand Mamtora and Gobind Mathi.

The chief modern tendency is to discard romanticism and to deal in a realistic fashion with the domestic, social and economic problems of the present day.

There is a growing body of opinion in favour of the present Arabic Sindhi alphabet being substituted by the original Devnagri alphabet—specially among the Hindus who have migrated from Sind and settled in India.

TAMIL

Modern Tamil Literature has been usually divided into two sections—the era of Navalar and the era of Bharathi. Arumuga Navalar of Jaffna was the first to write, edit, and publish almost all the classical books of the past in modern Tamil. It was he, who stirred south India by his simple homely language, and his example was soon followed by several other writers, among whom Rajam Iyer, Natesa Sastri, Poovai Kalyanasundara Mudaliar may be mentioned.

They were followed by Subramia Bharathi who was a great poet, essayist, short story writer and translator. He it was who introduced into Tamil modern trends, forms, shapes and the whole spirit of the new age. His Tamil made a direct appeal to the masses who found in his writings a perennial source of inspiration to guide them in every walk of life.

Though it is nearly thirty years since he died his writings still dominate the thought of the men and women of south India. There is no modern innovation in form, style or content that was not started by Bharati.

Kavi Ramalingam is the State Poet. Deshigavinayagam Pillai, Shuddhananda Bharathi-Dasan, are some of the other well-known poets. Journalism is much advanced in south India and there are several Tamil dailies which attain a very high standard. T. S. Chokkalingam and C. R. Srinivasan are the two prominent editors of Tamil Nad. The weeklies are among the best attractions of south India, *Kalki* and *Ananda Vikatan* are two popular journals which combine a wide appeal with a high level of writing. R. Krishnamurthi is a prominent figure among the editors of the weeklies. A Tamil Encyclopædia is under preparation and South Indians are now trying to bring out several publications suitable to children. Among children's books may be mentioned P. N. Appuswamy's *Chitra Kathai Patu*, P. Perumal's *Kulanthais Arangu*, and Tamizh Oli's *Pappa Pathu*.

There is now a great desire to enrich Tamil literature and the future is bright with hope as Matathipathies like Dharmapuram, Tiruppanandal, are spending large sums of money on the preparation of critical editions of Tamil classics.

TELUGU

Veeresalingam, Chilakamarti, Tirupati Venkata Kavulu and Guruzada may be considered as the fathers of the Telugu literature of the twentieth century. They were followed by Gidugu, Venkata Parvatisvara Kavulu, Tallavajjhula Sivasankara Sastry, Chinta, R. V. M. G. Ramarau Bahadur, Chief Justice Rajamannar and Kalaprapurna Dr. C. Narayana Rao.

Among leading poets are Tummala Seetharama Moorty Choudary and Sri Sri.

Kalaprapurna Dr. C. Narayana Rao stands at the very centre of the new literary movement in Andhra. He has incidentally translated the Koran into Telugu.

URDU

Modern Urdu literature was dominated, before the advent of Iqbal, by Sir Sayed Ahmed, Mohd. Hussain Azad, Hali and Shibli. They were succeeded by Abdul Kalam Azad, Syed Suleman Nadvi, Mohd. Ali and Sheikh Abdul Qadir. The literature then passed through a third phase to which writers like Sajjad Haider, Niaz Fatehpuri and Abdul Ghaffar belonged. They in their turn were followed by a long line of younger and more progressive writers like Bedi, Krishen Chandr, Akhtar Ansari, Josh, Asghar and Jigar who not only gave a new turn to artistic expression but also introduced a dose of realism. The new literature thus faithfully reflect the many political, economic and social changes which have now taken in the country at large.

Recent political changes in the country have put Urdu on trial as the language of the people. Even in Pakistan where Urdu has been acknowledged as the national language it has had to face the opposing claims of regional languages, particularly Punjabi and Bengali. Advocates of Urdu are therefore anxiously watching developments in the Punjab and Eastern Pakistan.

In India Urdu has to fight for its very existence in view of the emergence of Hindi as the State language and the increasing influence of regional languages.

The setting up of the Anjuman Taraqqi Urdu in Aligarh has evoked in the hearts of Urdu writers in India great hopes and expectations.

THE FUTURE

Whither Indian literature? With an answer to this question this brief survey may be concluded. Indian literature is at the threshold of still greater achievements inasmuch as freedom brings out the best in the people and their artists and authors. Add to it the expected redistribution of States on a linguistic basis, which is bound to give a great fillip to further and fuller growth in each of the literatures. But there is also a danger in this against which a note of warning must be sounded—the danger of decentralization resulting in a narrowing down of the all-India angle of vision and attitude, on the one hand, and of world loyalty on the other. Prudence lies, however, in co-operating with the evolutionary spirit which is steadily moving towards one world, one religion, one people, one philosophy of life.

The Indian literatures, however, are still in the "reformative" stage, trying to adjust themselves to the speedily changing spirit of the times.

Aspects of Indo-Anglian Literature

An Indian writing in English starts off with a major handicap. He has to attain a certain degree of mastery over the medium before proceeding to use it as a vehicle for self-expression at the level of literature. Now it is true that Indians have scored certain remarkable triumphs in their use of the English language. Some have used it with great precision and clarity as, for instance, Mahatma Gandhi or Dr. Sarvapalli Radhakrishnan. Others speaking in English have reached remarkable heights of eloquence—Gokhale or Bhulabhai Desai in the latter days of his career. Yet others have been able to acquire a manner of writing whose rhythms are indistinguishable from those of an Englishman's English—G. K. Chettur, for instance, who had a true feeling for the English language, or V. S. Shrinivasa Shastri whose expression was always lucid, idiomatic and absolutely correct according to the best English standards. Finally, there are those like Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, who for expressiveness or animation or range of subject-matter challenge comparison with the best work that is produced in England or other English-speaking countries.

But there is something which escapes even the best-schooled and the most sensitive among the writers, something which makes the higher branches of Indo-Anglian writing seem hollow and unreal. The truth is that while control over English for purposes of law or political and social discussion may come easily to the foreigner, control over English for purposes of self-expression at the highest level is a much more difficult achievement. This is just the reason why Indians writing in English have made a better showing in the literature of political, legal or general discussion than in literature properly so-called such as poetry, drama, fiction, essay or criticism.

POETRY

In poetry, for instance, which is the quintessence of literature, a great deal of early Indo-Anglian effort appeared quite stale and flat. Indeed here we come upon yet another obstacle which Indo-Anglians have had to overcome in their struggle for creative expression. For not only was the medium in which the poet was trying to express himself foreign but the very sources from which he drew his inspiration were also strange and alien. A great many Indo-Anglians knew little about the tradition in which they were born and their ancient culture and heritage. The history which they learnt at school was English history. The literature which fed their imagination was English literature. In fact much of the passion of young India for education was focussed in exuberant enthusiasm around English language and literature. They who had never heard an English skylark sing over an English meadow wrote whole essays on Shelley's *Ode to the Skylark*. In the hot aridity of an Indian summer, they puzzled over Keats's exact meaning when he called autumn a season of mists and mellow fruitfulness. The result was that when later they felt the need for self-expression themselves it was to the sights, the smells and the sounds of the English countryside that they turned for inspiration. Early Indo-Anglian writing was full of the song of the nightingale, the smell of the musk-rose, the beauty of the English spring or the bleakness of the English winter. The result was pure disaster for Indo-Anglian poetry. Neither in

India nor in England did it carry any special appeal. To the Indian the verses seemed unreal, while to the Englishman they seemed at best like clever machine-made imitations of English classics. Not even such a gifted poet as Mrs. Sarojini Naidu succeeded in making robins and skylarks seem authentic. Everyone knows the advice which the famous English critic Edmund Gosse gave her "....write no more about robins and skylarks....set your poems firmly among the mountains, the gardens, the temples ....introduce to us the vivid populations of your own voluptuous and unfamiliar province ... in other words be a genuine Indian poet of the Deccan, not a clever machine-made imitator of the English classics." Mrs. Naidu promptly changed her tune and turned to such typical Indian figures as the corn-grinder, the palanquin bearer, the bangle-seller or such authentic Indian landscapes as the call of the bulbul from a cassia plume, the song of the weaver at work at the loom, the voice of the shepherd gathering his flock under the pipal tree or the shout of the young Banjira woman driving her cattle across the fields. Here was Indo-Anglian poetry at its most natural and unpretentious—sweet, sensuous, sincere and unmistakably Indian,—though in rhythm and rhyme it still remained consistently conservative.

Indeed Mrs. Naidu's success marked a turning point in the history of Indo-Anglian poetry. It taught other practitioners of the art where to look for inspiration if they were to produce any worthwhile stuff. They saw that all genuine poetry was rooted in the tradition in which the poet was born or in modes of thought and action which were common to all humanity such as love, faith, desire, devotion, self-sacrifice. Thus, to cite a few examples, we have G. K. Chettur writing about a temple-tank or the Bevunje waterfall, Sheshadri about champak leaves, or Joseph Furtado about Brahmin girls. Of course, Rabindranath Tagore, towering in his world stature far above all else, had enriched the English literature by his inimitable "prose poems", but perhaps these cannot be called "Indo-Anglian", and the Poet's translated work has anyhow to be left out of the narrow compass of this review. At a different, but very high level, we have the philosophical poetry of Aurobindo Ghosh and J. Krishnamurthi describing the adventures of those who set out in quest of Truth, Beauty and Goodness. These earlier poets—and among them should be mentioned Manmohan Ghosh, the doyen of Indo-Anglian poets—were mainly content with Tennysonian rhymes and rhythms. A later school of Indian poets have tended to break away towards the standards of Eliot, Auden and Ezra Pound. This, in spite of the imitative leanings involved, is all to the good, since it has infused new life and imagery into their work.

LANGUAGE PROBLEM

The difficulty about language remained as acute as ever, retarding complete freedom of expression, inhibiting mental processes and generally introducing an element of unreality into the work of the Indo-Anglians. The language problem was not, of course, peculiar to the poets: it was common to all practitioners of the art of literature—novelists, dramatists, essayists, short story writers as well as to poets. And unless the means were found of solving the language problem there was no chance of Indo-Anglian literature developing along healthy and vigorous lines. One suggestion was that Indians should evolve an English of their own. There was American English, Irish English, Welsh English. Why not, it was asked, Indian English? But then a further question arose: What is Indian English and exactly how does it differ from English English? Neither Raja Rao nor Mulk Raj Anand, the two supporters of this theory, clearly answered this question. Mulk Raj Anand wrote a pamphlet in which he hotly attacked English English under the name of King Emperor's English. But the kind of language in which he wrote the whole pamphlet did not seem very different from the kind of language which he was engaged in attacking at the moment. Indeed if one was to judge from the idiom which the other exponent of the theory used in his novel *Kanthapura* it would seem as though the new English consisted in little more than literal translation of Indian swear-words (son of a bitch, son of a widow) or Indian word groups (killing flies to mean whiling away time) into English. It was quite clear that the solution of the language problem did not lie along the lines suggested by Raja Rao or Mulk Raj Anand.

A second way in which the language problem has sometimes been met is through collaboration between an Indian and an Englishman. This has, on the whole, produced happier results though for obvious reasons it is not a solution which is frequently possible. Two examples of collaboration may be mentioned here. One is the autobiography of Mahatma Gandhi. The Mahatma himself informed his readers how the manuscript of his autobiography was touched up by his English disciple Miss Margaret Slade, better known as Mira Ben. The Mahatma, of course, wrote in a language which was entirely adequate for his purpose. But perhaps something of the even flow and the quiet beauty of the narrative can be partially ascribed to Mira Ben's co-operation. The autobiography of Mahatma Gandhi cannot, of course, be regarded as a good example of collaboration since the parts played by Mahatma Gandhi and Mira Ben in the writing of it were very unequal. A better example of collaboration is afforded by Hilda Werher and Huthi Singh in their novel about Indian village life entitled *The Land and the Well*. Hilda Werher who is the principal author has lived in such a village as she describes in the book: but she wisely sought the assistance of an Indian collaborator to make her ground doubly sure. The result is an authentic and fascinating record of the hopes and fears, joys and tragedies of peasant life in a north Indian village.

FICTION

Turning to Indo-Anglian fiction we find that there are many failures but there is also a large measure of achievement particularly in the realm of the short story. A number of short stories by Mulk Raj Anand, Bhabani Bhattacharya, R. K. Narayan and K. A. Abbas have appeared in British literary periodicals of the highest standing. There are some Indian novelists who tend to fall between two stools. They aim to attract and please the English reader and at the same time to attract and please the Indian. This leads inevitably to inconsistencies. An English critic (Mr. Hilton Young on one of whose papers part of the following sketch is based) has rightly stated that Indo-Anglian novelists must drop the habit of forcing Indian pictures into European frames, of distorting a Hindu story into the mould of the *Strand Magazine*. "Write well as an Indian," he said. "And Europeans will read you."

One of the difficulties of the Indian novelist is that in India sex does not make stories as readily as in Europe. And if someone tries to compose love stories on Western lines he will be doomed to failure for he is at once introducing an unnatural and jarring element. A way out is to handle the love interest in a delicate, elusive, unsubstantial form, as, for instance, R. K. Narayan has done. The Indo-Anglian novelist is at his best when he falls back on the components which make up the social sketch or skit—such as family and social humours, life's daily business and mischiefs, the difficulties of political intercourse, the hopes and renunciations of youth, the clash of modernity on old established tradition. He could write about the arrangement for a marriage, the election to a municipal council or a deal in tamarind or betel-nut, a transaction in the black market—write in such a way as to elevate these commonplaces into literature in the same manner as Anton Tchekov made memorable creations out of everyday occurrences in the Russian life of his day. R. K. Narayan's *Bachelor of Arts*, for instance, contains no striking events. But it is a deft, vivid, truthful piece of writing for all that. It depends wholly on character and atmosphere. It does contain love interest, but the love interest is decidedly of the Indian brand. The first girl cannot even be spoken to and the final bride only gets the length of casting down her eyes. And indeed little more than that happens at all. Within the last few years, Narayan has achieved a reputation with leading London literary critics. His novels, *The Bachelor of Arts*, *The English Teacher*, *The Dark Room* and his collection of short stories, *An Astrologer's Day*, have had increasingly wide sales.

Of late Indian novelists have shown a new awareness of what has been called "contemporary reality", and have rendered the current social and political forces in terms of human values. This is a significant trend. Outstanding in this class of writing are the works of Mulk Raj Anand and Bhabani Bhattacharya. Dr. Anand is concerned mainly with the problems of the underprivileged classes, as in *Untouchables* and *Coolie*. Dr. Bhabani Bhattacharya in *So Many Hungers*! has drawn a vivid picture of wartime reactions in Bengal. The measure of the success of these two writers is obvious from the fact that their works have been translated into most of the major European languages and have been best-sellers. In England *Untouchable* has been reprinted as a "Penguin" and *So Many Hungers*! has been selected as a book-of-the-month.

ESSAY, DRAMA

So much for fiction. Let us next rapidly pass under review Indo-Anglian achievement in essay, drama, criticism and biography.

Not many Indo-Anglians have used the essay form for the simple reason that it does not constitute a natural vehicle for the expression of Indo-Anglian artistic genius. The one outstanding success is S.V.V. of the *Hindu*. Some of his work was of the most delicious kind, light as a feather, satirically humorous, most intimately revealing of Hindu life. It can indeed bear comparison with the kind of work which E. M. Delafield used to do for *Punch*. No praise could be higher. Then there were the group of writers who flourished in the hey-day of the *My Magazine* and *Merry Magazine* like R. Bangaruswami and A. T. Macnaughton Thomas. They did some fine work and gave their readers immense pleasure, but it must be confessed that a great deal of the humour was coarse and most of the language undignified. G. K. Chettur who always wrote with a sensitiveness to the finer points of the language was a more considerable figure. His work does not bulk large but some of his efforts are in the best English tradition. But the truth must be faced. The essay properly so-called is the expression of an attitude of mind which is rare in this country. As a branch of literature the essay originated with Montaigne in France but it has had its spiritual home in England where there is a certain disposition to deal with the minor occurrences of life in a big, light-hearted, mock-serious fashion. But the Indian spirit is flatly opposed to this mode of expression. It is deadly serious for one thing. For another it is disposed to deal with big issues in a big way. It can, for instance, describe with great subtlety the sensations produced by the sight of a star. But in the presence of a loaf of bread it may be dumb.

In the realm of drama the Indo-Anglian output is even more scanty. Whatever drama has been produced, is either heavily symbolical like that of Tagore, or frankly propagandist like that of Harindranath Chattopadhyaya. Taking the latter as a typical example, we find that Mr. Chattopadhyaya's plays are more in the nature of Socialist propaganda than genuine expressions of the dramatic spirit. His characters are mere puppets and neither speak nor act like human beings. Where, however, Mr. Chattopadhyaya lays aside his didactic purpose and follows his characters the dialogue acquires considerable force and eloquence.

CRITICISM, BIOGRAPHY

Much of Indo-Anglian criticism is dull and lifeless. In the first place, there is very little scholarly reviewing of books in Indian newspapers and periodicals. Criticism of poetry like the writing of it can be specially difficult. In

any case critical work by Indo-Anglians can be justified only if the point of view from which the criticism is presented is thoroughly Indian. As it is, much of what passes for criticism is a mere rehash of the work of foreign critics, lacking conviction, vigour and originality.

Of late much critical work has come out of Indian Universities from painstaking conscientious scholars preparing themselves for a doctor's degree. The outstanding name here is that of C. Narayana Menon whose *Shakespeare Criticism* is far and away the most notable contribution made by any Indian to the scholarly study of English literature.

Another outstanding volume of criticism —which appeared towards the end of 1948— is Dr. Itrat Husain's scholarly monograph *The Mystical Element in the Metaphysical Poets of the Seventeenth Century*. This work, embodying researches in the field over a period of 10 years, was published in London and was consistently well received by competent judges. Equally sound in his critical work is Dr. K. R. Shrinivasa Iyengar, of the Andhra University.

Indo-Anglians have made a better showing in the art of biography than in criticism. Wisely enough no attempt was made to imitate the manner of Lytton Strachey except in some of the smaller sketches. Nor is there anything in the style of Boswell which attempts to recreate a living personality by the sheer accumulation of detail. Most Indo-Anglian biographers are content to record in a straightforward manner the main facts in the life and times of their subject.

The greatest Indo-Anglian work in autobiography is, of course, Mahatma Gandhi's *Experiments with Truth*. The simplicity and the complete candour with which the Mahatma wrote make it one of the most moving personal documents of all time. Pandit Nehru's *Autobiography* is as much an exposition of Indian politics as an account of personal development. As politics it is excellent, but as autobiography it is inferior in human interest to the autobiography of Mahatma Gandhi. The literary quality of Nehru's writing is, however, of the highest order.

Since the Mahatma's tragic end, a spate of books on his life and achievements has appeared. Many of these, unfortunately have been hurriedly concocted and obviously written in the spirit of *carpe diem*. Not infrequently their literary merit has been nil.

THE PRESENT

Two books by Indian authors which have recently created interest are *And Gazelles Leaping* by Sudhin N. Ghose and *All About Mr. Hatterr* by G. V. Desani. The former—which has the advantage of a most attractive format and many remarkable black and white illustrations —is a record of childhood's memories by a young Bengali, whose writing might be termed in places an amalgam of Rudyard Kipling's style in his *Just So Stories* and Rumer Godden's delicate and knowledgeable touch in *The River* and *Black Narcissus*. Though not specifically termed a children's book it will undoubtedly have a wide appeal to youth, for it contains a delightful elephant and many quaint and likable characters drawn direct from the Bengali landscape. Mr. Ghose has no unnecessary frills in his writing and succeeds in evoking atmosphere in fluent straightforward prose with an occasional undercurrent of poetry. He is an interesting newcomer to Indo-Anglian literature, and should he venture into the field of fiction, he is likely to produce work of lasting value.

Mr. Desani—who hails from Sind—has had a *succes de scandale* with his extraordinary novel *All About Mr. Hatterr*, which has been lavishly eulogised by many of the leading British literary critics. This rather incoherent piece of fiction is unlikely to appeal to the general public because of its esoteric nature. The author has clearly soaked himself in the work of James Joyce. The influence of Proust and Pirandello may also be detected in his narrative, which, in its rather gaudy patchwork, resembles a coat of many colours. There is undeniable cleverness here, but the writing—discursive and elliptic—too frequently goes off at a tangent, and the writer's philosophy and beliefs are somewhat difficult to assess. As a foundation for a literary reputation, Mr. Desani will have to produce something more lasting than this diverting display of verbal pyrotechnics.

At the end of 1949, Mr. R. K. Narayan's new novel, *Mr. Sampath*, was published in London and received fairly good notices. This tale of a printer's woes is even slighter in treatment than the author's previous books, but it has subtlety and abundant humour and catches successfully the intricacies of thought in the Southerner's mind.

Both Dr. Bhabani Bhattacharya and Dr. Mulk Raj Anand have new novels in the offing. The former's new story—tentatively titled *Music or Mohini*—makes pleasant reading and should increase the public which he attracted with his first novel, *So Many Hungers*.

Mention should also be made of the first translation into English of the short stories of that remarkable writer in Urdu and Hindi, that Prem Chand, who died nearly fifteen years ago. Few Indian writers have displayed such intimate detail of life in the mofussil or such a fluent mastery of phrase. One of Prem Chand's stories translated is *The Shroud*; this little gem can bear comparison with the best of Tchekov and Turgenev.

Among the literary works that appeared in 1950 was a remarkable autobiography entitled *I Follow After*, by Lakshmibai Tilak. Though this is a translation from the original Marathi version, it deserves special mention since it ranks very high in this class of literature.

Another notable book published during the year was D. F. Karaka's *Betrayal in India*.

A SELECTION

Here is a selection from among the works of Indo-Anglians :

POETRY

Rabindranath Tagore: *Collected Poems and Plays*. Toru Dutt: *Ancient Legends and Ballads of Hindustan; A Sheaf Gleaned in French Fields*. Sarojini Naidu: *The Bird of Time; The Broken Wing; The Golden Threshold*. R. C. Dutt: *The Mahabharata; The Ramayana*. Aurobindo Ghosh: *Collected Poems and Plays*. Brijendranath Seal: *The Quest Eternal*. Harindranath Chattopadhyaya: *Ancient Wings; The Dark Well; The Feast of Youth; The Magic Tree; The Perfume of Earth*. K. S. Venkatramani: *On the Sand-Dunes*. Humayun Kabir: *Poems*. G. K. Chettur: *Gumataraya; The Shadow of God; The Temple Tank; The Triumph of Love*. Bharati Sarabhai: *The Well of the People*.

FICTION

Rabindranath Tagore: *Gora; Home and the World; The Wreck; Hungry Stones and Other Stories; Mashi And Other Stories*. R. C. Dutt: *The Lake of Palms; The Slave Girl of Agra*. K. S. Venkatramani: *Murugan the Tiller; Kandan the Patriot; Jatadharan and Other Stories*. K. Nagarajan: *Athawar House*. A. Subramaniam: *Indira Devi*. K. Raja Rao: *Kanthapura, The Cow and the Barricades*. R. K. Narayan: *Bachelor of Arts; The Dark Room; The English Teacher; Malgudi Days; Swami and Friends; Astrologers' Day*. Mulk Raj Anand: *Coolie; Untouchable; The Village; Across the Black Waters; Two Leaves and a Bud; The Tractor and the Corn Goddess; The Big Heart*. Ahmed Ali: *Twilight in Delhi*. G. K. Chettur: *The Ghost City and Other Stories*. D. F. Karaka: *There Lay the City*. K. Ahmed Abbas: *Rice; Tomorrow Is Ours*. Hilda Wernher and Huthi Singh: *The Land and the Well*. Humayun Kabir: *Men and Rivers; Three Stories*. Bhabani Bhattacharya: *So Many Hungers*. G. V. Desani: *All About Mr. Hatterr; Holi*. Benu Chitale: *In Transit*.

DRAMA

Rabindranath Tagore: *Chitra; Post-Office; The King of the Dark Chamber; The Red Oleander; Sacrifice*. Chattopadhyaya: *Five Plays*.

CRITICISM

C. Narayana Menon: *Shakespeare Criticism—An Essay in Synthesis*. Itrat Husain: *The Mystical Element in the Metaphysical Poets of the Seventeenth Century*. Amiya Chakravarti: *The Dynasts and the Post-war Age in Poetry*. Aurobindo Ghosh: *The future of Poetry*. Amarnath Jha: *Shakespearean Comedy and Other Studies*. K. R. Shrinivasa Iyengar: *Lytton Strachey—A Critical Study*. V. K. Ayappan Pillai: *Shakespeare Criticism*. Brijendranath Seal: *New Essays in Criticism*. Humayun Kabir: *Poetry, Monads and Society*. Budhadev Bose: *An Acre of Green Grass*.

MISCELLANEOUS

Rabindranath Tagore: *The Religion of Man; Sadhana; Personality; Fireflies*. Aurobindo Ghosh: *Essays on the Gita; The Life Divine*. S. Radhakrishnan: *The Hindu View of Life; An Idealist View of Life*. M. K. Gandhi: *My Experiments with Truth*. Jawaharlal Nehru: *Autobiography; Glimpses of World History; Letters from a Father to His Daughter; The Discovery of India*. P. A. Wadia: *Mahatma Gandhi*. R. P. Masani: *Dadabhai Naoroji*. V. S. Shrinivasa Shastri: *Life of Gokhale*. G. K. Chettur: *The Last Enchantment*. Khasa Subba Rao: *Men in the Lime-light*. D. F. Karaka: *I Go West; Chungking Diary; Out of Dust; I've Shed My Tears; Betrayal In India*. S. Natarajan: *West, of Suez*. K. P. S. Menon: *Delhi-Chungking*. Minoo Masani: *Our India*. K. S. Venkatramani: *A Day with Shambhu; Paper Boats*. S. V. V.: *Chaff and Grain; Soap Bubbles; More Soap Bubbles*. Krishnalal Shridharani: *My India; My America*. Suddhin Ghose: *And Gazelles Leaping*.

The Biggest State of the

INDIAN **REPUBLIC**

is the

United State of **RAJASTHAN**

and the

Oldest and most Popular

JOURNAL

OF RAJASTHAN IS

PRAJA-SEWAK

JODHPUR (Rajasthan)

Founded in year 1940

★

EDITED BY

The Veteran Congressman of

RAJASTHAN

Shri ACHALESHWAR PRASAD SHARMA

'Grams: **PRAJASEWAK**

Phones: **LOCAL 310 Central**
„ 442 Central

Trunk Telephone: **No. 88**

★

Widely circulated throughout Rajasthan, Madhya Bharat and in all places where the rich Marwari community resides in large numbers.

THE PRESS

BEFORE 1835 all printing of books and paper was subject to licence by the Governor-General in Council, and the licences were issued or refused at the discretion of Government. Act XI of 1835 repealed the old Regulations and merely required registration of the printer and stipulated a few other minor requirements. That Act was replaced in 1867 by the present Press and Registration of Books Act, and, except for an Act which was in force for one year during the 1857 upheaval, there was no further legislation directly affecting the Press until 1878 when the Vernacular Press Act was passed. That Act was repealed during the Viceroyalty of Lord Ripon in 1882. From that date until 1907 Government made no attempt to interfere directly with the liberty of the Press, the growth of sedition being dealt with in other ways by the passing in 1898 of section 124A of the Penal Code in its present form, which had been originally enacted in 1870, and by the introduction into the Penal Code of section 153A and into the Criminal Procedure Code of section 108. There were a certain number of prosecutions under those sections up to 1907. In 1908 the Newspaper (Incitement to Offences) Act was passed which dealt with papers inciting to murder or to acts of violence. This Act failed to have the desired effect.

The Indian Press Act, 1910, was a measure of wider scope, the main object of which it was explained was to ensure that the Indian press generally should be kept within the limits of legitimate discussion.

By the autumn of 1917 the Government of India had begun to consider the desirability of modifying at least one section of the Press Act to which great exception had been taken on account of the wide powers that it gave. Finally, after more than one consultation with Local Governments, a Committee was appointed in February 1921 after a debate in the then Central Legislative Assembly, to examine the Press and Registration of Books Act, 1867, and the Indian Press Act, 1910, and report what modifications were required in the existing law. That Committee made a unanimous report (for details see *Year Book for* 1948.)

In general the laws which affect the Press in India today are Press and Registration of Books Act, 1867; the Indian Copyright Act No. III of 1914; the Indian States (Protection of 1934; Sections 124-A, 153-A, 171-G, 255, 292 against Disaffection) Act, 1922; the Indian official Secrets Act No. XIX of 1923; the Indian Press (Emergency powers) Act No. XXIII of 1931; the Foreign Relations Act No. XII of 1932. The Indian States Protection Act No. XI of 1934; Sections 124-A, 153-A, 171-G, 255, 292, 293, 294-A, 295-A, 489-A, 499-502 and 505 of the Indian Penal Code; Sections 99A-99G and 108 of the Criminal Procedure Code; Sections 81, 84 and 87 of the Indian Evidence Act No. I of 1872; Sections 19 and 181A of the Sea Customs Act No. VIII of 1878; Sections 5 and 7 of the Land Customs Act No. XIX of 1924; Sections 26, 27A-27D of the Indian Post Office Act No. VI of 1898; Section 5 of the Indian Telegraph Act No. XIII of 1885; Sections 40, 52 and 53(1)(*b*) of the Patents and Designs Act No. II of 1911; Section 69 of the Trade Marks Act No. V of 1940; the Press (Special Powers) Act No. XXXIX of 1947; Provisions in States Public Safety or Maintenance of Public Order Acts dealing with censorship, control of publications and import, possession and conveyance of documents; The Contempt of Courts Act, 1926, The Indian Criminal Law Amendment Acts of 1932 and 1938. Article 19 (1) (*a*) and (*g*) and Clause (2) and (6) of the same article of the Constitution of India. The amendment to Article 19 (1) (*a*) reads: "Nothing in Sub-clause (A) of Clause 1 (the citizen's right to freedom of speech and expression) shall affect the operation of any existing law in so far as it imposes, or prevents the State from making any law imposing, in the interests of the security of the State, friendly relations with foreign States, public order, decency or morality, reasonable restrictions on the exercise of the right conferred by the said sub-clause and, in particular, nothing in the sub-clause shall affect the operation of any existing law so far as it relates to, or prevents the State from, making any law relating to contempt of court, defamation or incitement to an offence."

HISTORY

The newspaper Press in India is an essentially English institution and was introduced soon after the task of organising the administration was seriously taken in hand by the English in Bengal. In 1773 was passed the Regulating Act creating the Governor-Generalship and the Supreme Court in Bengal and within seven years at the end of the same decade, the first newspaper was started in Calcutta by an Englishman in January 1780. More than a century and a half has elapsed since, not a very long period certainly, a period almost measured by the life of a single newspaper, *The Times of London*, which came into existence only five years later in 1785; but then the period of British supremacy was not much longer, having commenced at Plassey, only twenty-three years earlier. Bombay followed Calcutta closely, and Madras did not lag much behind. In 1789 the first Bombay newspaper appeared, *The Bombay Herald*, followed next year by *The Bombay Courier*, a paper now represented by *The Times of India* with which it was amalgamated in 1861. In Bombay the advent of the press may be said to have followed the British occupation of the island much later than was the case in Calcutta. In Calcutta the English were on sufferance before Plassey, but in Bombay they were absolute masters after 1665, and it is somewhat strange that no Englishman should have thought of starting a newspaper during all those hundred and twenty-five years before the actual advent of *The Bombay Herald*.

First Newspaper

The first newspaper was called *The Bengal Gazette* which is better known from the name of its founder as *Hicky's Gazette* or *Journal*. Hicky like most pioneers had to suffer for his enterprising spirit, though the fault was entirely his own, as he made his paper a medium for the publication of gross scandal, and he and his journal disappeared from public view in 1782. Several journals rapidly followed Hicky's, though they did not fortunately copy its bad example. *The Indian Gazette* had a career of over half a century, when in 1833 it was merged into the *Bengal Harkaru*, which came into existence only a little later. No fewer than five papers followed in as many years, the *Bengal Gazette* of 1780, and one of these, *The Calcutta Gazette*, started in February 1784, under the avowed patronage of Government, flourishes still as the official gazette of the West Bengal Government.

In 1821 a syndicate of European merchants and officials commenced the publication of *John Bull in the East*, a daily paper which was intended to reflect Tory opinion in India and set an example to the Press generally in the matter of moderation and restraint. The name of this journal was altered to *The Englishman* by the famous Stocqueler in 1836.

From its commencement the press was jealously watched by the authorities who put serious restraints upon its independence and pursued a policy of discouragement and rigorous control. Government objected to news of apparently the most trivial character affecting its servants. From 1791 to 1799 several editors were deported to Europe without trial and on short notice, whilst several more were censured and had to apologise. At the commencement of the rule of Wellesley Government promulgated stringent rules for the public press and instituted an official censor to whom everything was to be submitted before publication, the penalty for offending against these rules being immediate deportation. These regulations continued in force till the time of the Marquis of Hastings who in 1818 abolished the censorship and substituted milder rules.

This change proved beneficial to the status of the press, for henceforward self-respecting and able men began slowly but steadily to join the ranks of journalism, which had till then been considered a low profession. Silk Buckingham, one of the ablest and best known of Anglo-Indian journalists of those days, availed himself of this comparative freedom to criticise the authorities, and under the short administration of Adam, a civilian who temporarily occupied Hastings' place, he was deported under rules specially passed. But Lord Amherst and still more Lord William Bentinck were persons of broad and liberal views, and under them the press was left practically free, though there existed certain regulations which were not enforced, though Lord Clare, who was Governor of Bombay from 1831 to 1835, once strongly but in vain urged the latter to enforce them. Metcalfe, who succeeded for a brief period Bentinck, removed even these regulations, and brought about what is called the emancipation of the press in India in 1835, which was the beginning of a new era in the history of the Indian press. Among papers that came into being, was the *Bombay Times* which was started towards the close of 1838 by the leading merchants of Bombay, and which in 1861 changed its name to the *Times of India*.

The liberal spirit in which Lord Hastings had begun to deal with the press led not only to the improvement in the tone and status of the Anglo-Indian press, but also to the rise of Indian-owned English and Indian language papers. The first newspaper in any Indian language was the *Samachar Durban* started by the famous Serampore Missionaries Ward, Carey and Marshman in 1818 in Bengali. It received encouragement from Hastings who allowed it to circulate through the post office at one-fourth the usual rates. This was followed in 1822 by a purely Gujarati paper in Bombay called the *Bombay Samachar* which still exists, and thus was laid the foundation of the Indian language Press which at the present day is by far the largest part of the press in India.

From 1835 to the upheaval of 1857 the press spread to other cities like Delhi, Agra and Gwalior, whereas formerly it was chiefly confined to the Presidency towns of Madras, Bombay and Calcutta. During the 1857 upheaval its freedom had to be temporarily controlled by the Gagging Act which Canning passed in June 1857 on account of the license of a very few papers, and owing still more to the fears of its circulating intelligence which might be prejudicial to the ruling power. The Act was passed only for a year at the end of which the press was once more comparatively free.

Macaulay made sedition a penal offence when he drafted the Penal Code, and journalism became a hazardous undertaking particularly with the growth of the freedom movement in the country. Subsequent history may be summarized in one sentence. Every time a campaign was launched against the Government some kind of public safety measure or emergency ordinance was at once put through; when pauses in the campaign occurred the laws were relaxed or abrogated. But some kind of emergency law remained on the statute book even after the advent of independence. The emergency law is represented by the Press (Special Powers) Act of 1947 and certain provisions in the Public Safety Measures Acts in the various States. It must be pointed out, however, that in all matters relating to the press Government seeks the advice of Press Advisory Bodies which are set up in all the States and also at the Centre.

Three important developments in the history of the press were the formation of the Indian and Eastern Newspapers Society in 1939, the All India Newspaper Editors' Conference in 1940, and the Press Trust of India in 1940. The first two bodies were set up in the main to safeguard the common interests of the newspaper industry both on the business and editorial sides. The third body took over the ownership of the Associated Press of India and entered into partnership with Reuters Limited. The formation of all these bodies has helped to promote co-operation and understanding between Government and the press.

PRESS LAWS COMMITTEE

After the Second World War there was a general demand that Press laws should be brought in line with those prevailing in progressive countries and the Government of India appointed a committee of officials and non-officials on March 15, 1947 to review Press laws and suggest reforms. The Committee consisted of the following: Rai Bahadur Ganga Nath (*Chairman*), Nawabzada Khurshid Ali Khan, Rai Bahadur Sri Naraian Mahtha, Sri Prakasa, Diwan Chamanlal, Siddique Ali Khan, K. Srinivasan, S. A. Brelvi, Tushar Kanti Ghosh, G. V. Bedekar (*Secretary*). Evidence was submitted by Governments, press organizations and individual journalists. While the Provincial Governments were in favour of retention of the laws and even tightening some of them journalistic opinion on the whole seemed unfavourable. The A.-I.N.E.C. the most authoritative of all the bodies made a series of recommendations which could be summarized as follows:—The Post Office Act, the Criminal Procedure Code provisions and the Sea Customs Act could be left alone. Section 5 of the Telegraph Act should be amended so as to free messages intended for publications in newspapers. In respect of Sec. 124-A, I.P.C. the trial of sedition cases must be by jury. Trial of cases under Section 153-A may be made summary and *in camera* to avoid the evil effects of additional publicity. Sec. 144 of the Cr. P. C. should not be used to order editors not to publish news. The laws of contempt should be so amended as to permit *bona fide* reporting of judicial proceedings. Parliamentary reports should be made statutorily privileged. The conference gave it as its opinion that there was no justification for the humiliating restrictions imposed upon the Press by the various Provincial Public Safety Acts and said that there was need for guarantee against the powers under the Acts being abused. The operations of the Official Secrets Act, 1923 should be restricted to cases giving information to enemy in times of war and publication of confidential Government information likely to imperil public safety. The memorandum finally asked for outright repeal of the Indian States Act, 1922, Princes Protection Act, 1934, and Foreign Relations Act, 1932, and demanded constitutional guarantees for the freedom of the Press with a clause in the fundamental rights section that as in America the legislature here may pass no laws to restrict the freedom of the Press. Where there is no incitement to violence communication of news and expression of opinion should be free.

Report

The Committee which published its report on Aug. 19, 1948 recommended the repeal of the Indian Press (Emergency Powers) Act, 1831 but some of the provisions of the Act were to be incorporated into the ordinary law of the country.

Other recommendations of the Committee were the exemption of the Press from Section 144 of the Criminal Procedure Code and the provision of a separate law, if necessary, for dealing with the Press in urgent cases of apprehended danger and the amendment of Section 124-A, Indian Penal Code, so that only incitement to violence against Government established by law would be treated as sedition.

The report includes an exhaustive historical review of the press laws of India, a chapter on laws governing the Press in the principal countries of the world and a comparison of these with the Indian Press laws and also an examination of the Press laws of India with reference to the fundamental rights formulated by the Constituent Assembly of India and a chapter on the rights and responsibilities of the Press.

The Committee also recommended that an explanation should be added to Section 153-A of the Indian Penal Code (promoting enmity between classes) to the effect that it does not amount to an offence under that section to advocate a change in the social or economic order provided such advocacy does not involve the use of violence.

Another recommendation of the Committee is that the provisions of the Indian Telegraph Act and the Indian Post Office Act which relate to interception should be amended to provide that actions and orders of subordinate officers are reported to and reviewed by responsible Ministers of Government.

Repeal of the Indian States Protection against Disaffection Act, 1922 and the Indian States (Protection) Act, 1934, was also recommended.

The Committee are of the view that while the Foreign Relations Act, 1932, should be repealed, more comprehensive legislation should be undertaken to make provision on a reciprocal basis for the protection of heads of foreign States, foreign Governments and the diplomatic representatives in India from defamatory attacks.

Lastly, the Committee have recommended that before taking action against the Press under emergency legislation, Provincial Governments should invariably consult the Press Advisory Committee or similar body.

The report is signed by all members, subject to certain dissenting views expressed by Mr. Brelvi and Mr. Srinivasan. There are separate notes by Diwan Chaman Lal, the Hon. Mr. Mohanlal Saksena and Mr. Tushar Kanti Ghosh.

In his note, Diwan Chaman Lal expressed the view that Government should take serious notice of the tendency towards the formation of monopolies in connection with newspaper production and news agencies and advocated the setting up of a National News Agency controlled by an independent public authority.

In regard to monopolies and cartels in the production of newspapers, Diwan Chaman Lal was of the view that steps should be taken to prevent concentration in the hands of "big business" of chains of newspapers. He also expressed the opinion that the law of defamation and libel was entirely inadequate and needed to be strengthened and that the penalties should be more severe.

In the second note, Mr. Tushar Kanti Ghosh expressed the view that the name of the editor should, as now, continue to be published in papers and that the editor alone should be held fully responsible in respect of matter appearing in his paper. Mr. Ghosh was of the view that proceedings against a newspaper under Section 124-A, I.P.C. (Sedition) should be tried with the help of a jury and that no prosecution should be encouraged in respect of any printed matter unless it amounted to clear incitement to violence. He also expressed his opposition on principle to any proceedings in a court of law being conducted *in camera* except in grave emergencies.

Mr. Mohanlal Saksena in his note expressed the view that the Official Secrets Act should be confined only to matters which must remain secret in the interest of the safety of the State. He thought that the Act should be amended accordingly and specific provision should also be made that powers under the Act should not be put into operation without the consent of the Minister concerned.

INTER-DOMINION AGREEMENT

In 1948 an attempt was made to draw up a newspaper code to help in the creation of friendly relations between India and Pakistan. There were also good-will tours of Indian and Pakistani journalists. Thus a group of journalists from Indian and Pakistani Punjabs met in Simla on April 29, 1948, and decided to appoint a joint committee to ensure that the code which the meeting had drawn up was observed by newspapers in the two Punjabs. An event of much greater significance was the conclusion of an agreement between the Governments of India and Pakistan covering the whole sub-continent. At the conference at Calcutta held earlier during the year the two Governments agreed that in order to create a better atmosphere they would take steps in co-operation with the representatives of the Press to ensure that (1) the press of one country did not indulge in propaganda against the other country, (2) did not publish exaggerated versions of the news of a character likely to inflame or cause fear or alarm to the population or a section of the population in either country, (3) did not publish material likely to be construed as advocating a declaration or war by one country against the other country or suggesting the inevitability of war between the two countries and (4) discouraged all propaganda for the amalgamation of India and Pakistan or of parts of the two countries.

It was hoped that if the press in the two countries carried out its obligations in the spirit of the agreement arrived at between the two Governments the relations between them would vastly improve.

The agreement noted above was reinforced by the formulation of a code by the Indo-Pakistan Joint Press Committee. The text of the code is as follows: "The Joint Press Committee of the A.-I.N.E.C. and the P.N.E.C. notes with satisfaction the response of the press of India and Pakistan to the resolutions adopted by the joint meeting of the Standing Committee of the A.-I.N.E.C. and the P.N.E.C. on May 5, 1950 at Delhi.

"The Committee calls upon the press of both countries to help to facilitate the further implementation of the Indo-Pakistan Agreement: (A) By avoiding dissemination of news calculated to undermine relations between the majority and the minority communities in the two countries; (B) By refusing to give currency to mischievous opinion of individuals or organisations likely to rouse communal passions or create a sense of insecurity among the members of the minority community; (C) By rigorously excluding from the press of each country, opinion directed against the territorial sovereignty of the other or purporting to incite war; (D) By seeking through normal press channels or Government agencies, verification of news of communal incidents before it is published; (E) By always exercising due care and caution in regard to the publication of reports of communal incidents; (F) By avoiding alarming headlines for reports of communal incidents; (G) By exercising care in the publication of pictures and cartoons likely to excite communal passions; (H) By affording full facilities to Governments for correction or contradiction of published reports."

Press Committee

The sixth meeting of the Indo-Pakistani Information Consultative Committee held three sessions in Karachi in March.

The Committee reviewed writings in the press and other media of publicity in the light of the Indo-Pakistani Agreement of April 8, 1950.

The Committee noted with satisfaction the general improvement in the communal situation and the substantial contribution made by the press by responding to the appeal made at the last meeting of the Committee held in Calcutta in October 1950.

In a resolution, the Committee reiterated the principle that all problems in dispute between India and Pakistan should be discussed on their merits, without introduction of matters arousing communal passion or attacking the territorial integrity of either country of advocating war or creating a war psychosis and should not be made the basis of scurillous attack against the religion, culture and faith of either country or personal attack against their respective leaders.

Mr. R. R. Diwakar, the Minister of State for Information and Broadcasting, said that India and Pakistan being peace-loving nations should solve all their disputes, including Kashmir, by mutual give-and-take, and by methods which were not violent.

He made this statement at a reception given in honour of the Indian press delegation by Mr. Siromal, leader of the minority group in the Sind Legislative Assembly.

Khwaja Shahabuddin, Pakistan's Information and Broadcasting Minister, speaking after Mr. Diwakar, said that he fully endorsed Mr. Diwakar's statement, and added : " It is the constant effort of the Pakistan Government that the relations between India and Pakistan should improve so that the two should not only live as neighbours and friends but be a source of strength to each other."

Mr. Deshbandhu Gupta, President of the All-India Newspaper Editors' Conference, and his counterpart in Pakistan, Pir Ali Rashidi, appealed to the press in the two countries to help in creating an atmosphere in which each country would be a source of strength to the other.

Mr. Gupta remarked that the work of sub-editors and reporters was as important as editors, if not more. He, therefore, specially appealed to the first two categories to exercise more restraint and to do their bit in maintaining and strengthening friendly relations between India and Pakistan.

Reference may here be made to a different kind of newspaper code bearing on internal questions which was tentatively adopted by the West Bengal Press Advisory Committee. The object of the code was to fight as the committee put it the growing menace of provincialism. The code consists of the following main points : 1. news must promote the basic concept of national unity, 2. disputes should not be presented as though they were disputes between communities or States, 3. photographs or cartoons which may stir up provincial prejudice should not be published, 4. suggestions for the alteration of boundaries should not be made in provocative language.

In 1948, an Audit Bureau of Circulation was started in Bombay on the initiative of the Indian and Eastern Newspaper Society. The purpose of the Bureau was to certify net paid sales of newspapers and periodicals so that the results of press advertising could be more accurately calculated. In that year too the circulation of an English language newspaper (*The Times of India*), reached the high figure of 1,00,000.

A joint meeting of the Executive Committees of the Indian and Eastern Newspaper Society, the All-India Newspaper Editors' Conference and the Indian Language Newspapers' Association in 1949 suggested that newspapers must be listed among Central subjects so as to ensure that they were not exposed to any threats affecting their integrity or independence from any quarter. The meeting also urged the Constituent Assembly to guarantee the freedom of the press in the constitution itself in explicit terms, rather than by mere implication. Tax on the sale or purchase of newspapers and on advertisements published in them are all now on the Union list.

On the question of the freedom of the press the All-India Newspaper Editors' Conference passed a resolution at a meeting in 1949 requesting the Constituent Assembly to include a clause in the new constitutions guaranteeing fundamental rights to the press. The Conference at the same time made it clear that the press for its part must use its freedom with a due sense of responsibility. For instance, there were sections of the press which showed a tendency to overstep the bounds of legitimate criticism and indulge in scurrilous and offensive language, or practise gross distortion of fact and deliberate suppression of news. Such tendencies, the Conference urged, must be checked, if the press was to retain its good name. The question, in fact, might be thoroughly looked into by the Standing Committee of the conference and by the various Press Advisory Committees.

The point was reiterated at a meeting of the A.-I.N.E.C. in March 1951. It condemned in a resolution the tendency in a section of the press ' to persist in deliberately publishing matter which is false, malicious and indecent and which contravenes accepted standards of presentation of news and comments.' It requested the President to look into specific cases that might be brought to his notice and take suitable measures to improve the professional standard of the journal in question. The Committee also considered other points such as the ruling given by the Speaker of the Madras Assembly (see below) and protested against its undemocratic intentions. Courses in journalism in Universities in the various States were suggested by a separate resolution. The Committee also asked the President to resume negotiations for the setting up of a National Press Club in New Delhi.

Closely allied to the question of statutory restrictions by Government is monopoly control by capital. As stated elsewhere, Diwan Chamanlal had made suggestions on this problem in his note attached to the Press Laws Committee Report. Mr. R. K. Sidhwa also took up this question and declared his intention of bringing a Bill to control monopoly. The Bill would set up a Council of the Press of India whose primary duty was to prevent the growth of monopolistic tendencies in the management and control of the press. The Council would try to achieve this object by 1. setting up high professional standards in journalism, 2. introducing proper methods of imparting good training for journalism, 3. proper methods of recruitment, pay, etc., 4. keeping under review developments in the press tending to monopoly, 5. investigating and reporting whenever necessary on the membership of any newspaper company or press. In the course of a statement Mr. Sidhwa explained that newspapers and periodicals were gradually coming into the hands or under the influence of a particular class of people. Independent newspapers were bought by rich business men owning newspapers in different towns who dictated their own policy. It was desirable to put an end to such harmful tendencies and improve the lot of those who had entered the profession.

As for the working condition of journalists the Uttar Pradesh Newspaper Industry Enquiry Committee report published in 1950 stresses the need for suitable legislation to ensure the progress of the newspaper industry and to improve the conditions of service of newspaper workers. The report also suggests that all newspapers in the State should be classified according to capital invested, circulation and annual income, and placed into three separate categories.

JOURNALISTS' ASSOCIATIONS

Working journalists of India, met for the first time in the journalistic history of the country in October 1950 and set up a central representative body, " the Federation of Indian Working Journalists ", with the object, among other things, of protecting the rights and interests of working journalists and of defending and preserving the freedom of the press.

The Convention, sponsored by the Delhi Union of Journalists was attended by representatives of 23 State and District journalist organisations, and was presided over by Mr. M. Chalapati Rau, Editor of *The National Herald*, Lucknow.

The Convention passed more than a dozen resolutions on various problems connected with the press and working journalists. The Convention condemned executive " inroads " into the liberties of the press and placed on record " its deep sense of appreciation " on the judicial decisions upholding the press and its rights.

The Convention also demanded the association of working journalists with Press Advisory Committees, and recommended that the work of accreditation and disaccreditation of correspondents be entrusted to professional bodies.

A code of professional conduct for working journalists was adopted while the President was authorised to nominate a Committee to draft a constitution and make recommendations on, among other things, organisation of working journalists on trade union lines.

The Convention expressed " grave concern " at the prevailing conditions in the profession— " growing unemployment, insecurity of service, long working hours and for the majority not even a living wage." It " demanded " that the employers should take " immediate steps " to improve the conditions, to introduced salary scales " in keeping with the responsibilities of an intellectual profession " and provide for adequate leave, insurance, provident fund and other facilities.

While urging the members to strive for such improvement " and forge sanctions wherever possible ", the Convention " deeply " regretted the failure of Government to improve working conditions in newspapers and news agencies. It demanded the institution of an inquiry into the conditions of working journalists with a view to introducing legislation based on that inquiry to enforce minimum standards, and demanded that in all matters pertaining to the press the point of view of working journalists should be taken into account.

It also suggested that all the newspapers in India should be closed on Sundays so that weekly journalism might develop and journalists might be able to take part in cultural and social activities.

While deploring the conditions of mofussil correspondents, the Convention called upon newspaper owners to treat the correspondents on a par with the members of the editorial staff.

The Convention today adopted the following code of professional conduct :

" A member should do nothing that would bring discredit on himself, his newspaper, his profession or his professional organisation. He should not by commission or omission act against the interests of the Federation or the regional organisation of which he is a member.

" No member should seek promotion or seek to obtain the position of another journalist by unfair methods. A member should not, directly or indirectly, attempt to obtain for himself or any one else any commission, regular or occasional, held by a freelance member of the Federation or a constituent body.

" It is unprofessional conduct to exploit the labour of another journalist by plagiarism or by using his copy for any purpose without permission."

Working journalists, representing both English and language newspapers also met at a convention in Bombay on April 16, 1951 to adopt a charter of demands.

The charter referred to emoluments, allowances, terms and conditions of service, provident fund, pension and security of employment.

The charter demanded a minimum salary of Rs. 150 for the " ordinary grade " rising up to Rs. 900 in 25 years, the scale of pay for the " selection grade " being Rs. 350—Rs. 1,250, spread over a period of 20 years.

A compulsory provident fund and provision for pension and compensation was also demanded by the charter. On the question of security of service, the charter stated that the services of a journalist should not be dispensed with after he had been confirmed, except for gross insubordination or continued negligence.

Mr. Chalapathi Rau advised working journalists to organise themselves on trade union lines if they wanted to improve their condition.

Mr. Rau said that legislation in regard to the improvement of the conditions of newspapermen in this country was most welcome.

He deprecated the " invidious " distinction that prevailed at present between the working conditions, particularly in regard to the salary of newspapermen working in English and Indian

language papers. "The future lies with the Indian language newspapers and since they have not developed to the extent the English press, the same salary scale cannot be applied to both."

Moving the charter of demands, Mr. Frank Moraes observed that there was little point in remaining satisfied with the mere acceptance of the charter. He urged journalists to find ways and means to ensure the charter's terms being implemented by newspaper proprietors.

He referred to the working conditions of journalists and said that they were neglected not only by the community but also by Government. The Fourth Estate had been neglected in this country and neglected largely due to the faults of the journalists themselves. They had failed to assert themselves in an organised manner, he said.

A resolution demanding appointment, by Government, of a commission to inquire into the conditions of working journalists in India was also passed.

The convention noted with regret that journalists had so far been denied the benefits of labour laws and urged Parliament to expedite the passing of the Labour Relations Bill, the provisions of which, it felt, were sufficiently wide to include journalists.

Mr. G. N. Acharya moved the resolution which also called upon State Governments to issue notifications declaring newspapers, news agencies and journals as establishments appropriate for collective bargaining. Mr. M. V. Kamath and Mr. Vallabhdas Akkad supported the resolution.

The convention, in another resolution, expressed its anxiety over the situation created by the newsprint shortage and urged the Ministry of Supplies and Industry to investigate the matter in all its aspects. Pending the result of the inquiry, the convention appealed to newspaper proprietors and allied organisations not to retrench their staff on the plea of newsprint scarcity.

A resolution, moved by Mr. Romesh Chandra, calling upon the Government of India to adopt the recommendations of the Press Law Inquiry Committee, was also accepted.

LAW CASES

A number of cases occurred during the years 1949 and 1950 in which the judiciary intervened to set aside orders served on the press by the executive. For instance, in the Punjab a Full Bench of the Punjab High Court set aside an order of the Chief Commissioner of Delhi on the daily *Pratap* forfeiting the paper's security and demanding a fresh security of Rs. 5,000 (May 17, 1949). The order of forfeiture was based on two items, a letter from a refugee staying in a camp and a report about the withdrawal of Maulana Abul Kalam Azad and Mr. Rafi Ahmed Kidwai from a meeting of the Congress Working Committee. In delivering judgment the Judges remarked that S.4 (1)(D) of the Indian Press (Emergency Powers) Act should not be made use of for stifling legitimate criticism or the ventilation of genuinely felt grievances. The hatred, contempt or disaffection made culpable by the Act must in its intensity and depth be more than a mere feeling of resentment or disapprobation. The judges declared that the law of sedition in its present form was a little too nebulous and that the proceedings of the case in hand clearly demonstrated that people still required protection against the executive even under a national Government.

About two months later (July 14, 1949), the same newspaper was again involved in a case with the Chief Commissioner of Delhi, when a Full Bench of the Punjab High Court allowed an appeal by the editor of the paper against an order of the Chief Commissioner forfeiting its security for publishing certain articles and news items. In the course of their judgment the Judges declared that the desire to stifle legitimate criticism must be deprecated and that the press must be allowed more liberty of expression. The Judges then went on to say, 'The proceedings in this case would appear to show that even innocent and harmless utterances of the press are looked upon with disfavour by the executive authorities'.

Three other interesting cases in which a newspaper was involved would also bear mention. According to a judgment of the Bombay High Court (June 2, 1949), the keeper of a printing press cannot be presumed to be the printer of documents printed and published at the press under S.9A of the Bombay Public Security Measures Act, 1947. (*This Act is now amended*). On this basis, Mr. Justice Gajendragadkar issued writs of *certiorari* and prohibition against the State of Bombay and Mr. V. T. Dehajkar, Secretary to the Government of Bombay at the instance of the People's Publishing House Ltd.

The second case involved a conviction. The Chief Presidency Magistrate of Bombay sentenced (28 July 1949) one Ramesh Chandra, a member of the Communist Party to three months' rigorous imprisonment for committing a breach of the Press (Emergency Powers) Act by publishing an unauthorized pamphlet entitled 'Operation Asylum'. The accused argued that the pamphlet was brought out in 1946 when circumstances were entirely different. And he could not be prosecuted for the offence now. The magistrate, however, held that the language employed by the accused in the pamphlet was extravagant and the argument neither fair nor liberal.

The third case touched upon the freedom of the press more closely. The issue in Romesh Thappar versus the Government of Bombay (August 19, 1949 and September 20, 1949) was whether the order issued on the publisher of *Cross Roads* by the Government of Bombay on July 25, 1949 under S. 9(*a*) of the Public Security Measures Act prohibiting him from publishing his paper for a stated period—whether this order was an executive order or a judicial order. If it was an executive order the courts had no jurisdiction. But if it was a judicial order the Courts could intervene. In directing that the case must be disposed of on its merits the Chief Justice of the Bombay High Court and Mr. Justice Tendolkar held (September 20, 1949) that the order was judicial and not executive inasmuch as the Government had to decide objectively and not subjectively the nature of the action to be taken as well as the purpose. In other words, Government could take action only if the action was justified, *i.e.*, it was intended to prevent any activity prejudicial to public safety or maintenance of public order.

This is not, of course, the whole story, for there were also instances in which the courts upheld Government action. In any case, the law of a country is one thing, and what happens in actual practice is quite a different thing. From this point of view there is little doubt that the press in this country does enjoy the greatest amount of freedom in actual practice. This point, in fact, was forcibly made by Mr. C. Rajagopalachari when he opened the All-India Newspaper Editors' Conference at Bangalore in May 1950 when he was Governor-General. In the course of his speech he said, 'It is not the statutes that give us the measure of the rights enjoyed by the Press. There may be terrible-looking laws on the statute book, but to use a homely expression, the proof of the pudding is in the eating. On any day in the year I can if challenged produce a catalogue of things printed . . . which would prove that there is no sort of restriction over writing or fear in the minds of journalists'. That may be regarded as a fair summing up of the whole position about press law in the country. (See p. 72 under 'News Items'.)

NEWS COVERAGE

The coverage of Indian news in 1950 was on the whole fair and adequate. The press was inclined to be critical of the Congress as the party in power, but credit was given whenever it was due. Issues that were singled out for criticism were prohibition, food, corruption and inefficieny in administration, the prevalence of the black market, appeasement of powerful local groups particularly in the formation of Ministries, use of special powers to suppress civil liberties guaranteed by the Constitution, the rehabilitation of refugees, the passion for moral reform in directions in which public opinion was not ready to follow. There was also the major charge that the party in power lacked the necessary drive and enthusiasm to undertake a drastic reorganisation of the country's economy. On the other hand the Government got full support for its policy in Kashmir. Whatever criticism there was to the effect that the Government did not go far enough. This was really part of a wider charge that there was far too much of appeasement in the Government of India's dealings with Pakistan. On the question of evacuee property, for instance, condemnation was particularly severe.

When we turn to the coverage of foreign news, we find that that was much poorer. The press in fact failed to rise to the full measure of the challenge that the post-war situation offered to the press of this country. A whole new world had arisen in south and east Asia, with which India had close geographical and strategic ties. Many of the countries there had just become free like India. Others were throbbing with a new vitality. And all of them had much the same kind of economy as India and were faced with similar problems and difficulty. Yet no special attention was paid to development in this area. Another vast reconstruction movement was in progress in the war-devastated countries of Europe. They were trying to build a new order from scratch by using novel techniques such as mass participation. A backward agricultural society was transforming itself into a modern industrial economy largely through its own efforts. Hardly anything of this experiment, which was of such supreme interest to India found any reflection in the news columns of the Indian press. Instead attention was fixed almost entirely upon a set of incidents very narrow in scope connected with what the Americans call "the cold war." One read day after day of conflicts between cardinal and communist, of acrimonious protests from one Government to another, of flaming challenges thrown out to hypothetical aggressors, of international conferences at which groups of delegates met and went on snarling at one another. Much of this reporting was fundamentally futile and was made wholly tedious by the constant repetition of identical statements from foreign spokesmen expressed in identical language.

There was a more serious aspect of the situation on which attention was not sufficiently focussed. The whole nature of the foreign correspondence put the editorial staffs of Indian newspapers in a dilemma in which the news background was flagrantly at cross-purposes with editorial policy. While the editorial columns pressed for a policy of neutrality the news columns were filled day after day with the kind of reports which made that very neutrality appear not only wrong but diabolically wrong. The point was not whether the news reports were true or false but that they had a bewildering effect on the sort of reader who took a serious interest in international relations. Thus it was not only the editorial staffs of Indian newspapers that found themselves in a dilemma but also the External Affairs Ministry of the Government of India. Appropriately enough, the man who first drew attention to this disconcerting factor in the situation was the Minister of External Affairs himself, Mr. Jawaharlal Nehru. In an address which he delivered to the All-India Newspaper Editors' Conference in December 1950, Mr. Nehru used these words, "If you want peace among various countries it is hardly a sensible or logical approach to go about slandering each other, irritating each other and pointing out the faults, errors and sins of the other. . . . It leads to a closing up of people's minds and when minds are closed they become impervious to any argument or any peaceful approach."

Liaison with Government

Part of the trouble was that liaison between the press and the External Affairs Ministry was neither close nor continuous enough. Opinion was expressed at the same meeting of the Newspaper Editors' Conference that liaison might be

more systematic, as in England for instance. On the staff of English newspapers, there is always a man who regularly interprets the mind and intention of the British Foreign Office to the English public. This man, the newspapers call, "Our Diplomatic Correspondent." Mr. Deshbandhu Gupta, the President of the Newspaper Editors' Conference asked that the External Affairs Ministry should appoint a public relations section and that there should be a committee of foreign editors of Indian papers for liaison with the External Affairs Department.

Part of the trouble also was that most Indian newspapers were understaffed particularly on the writing side. One was always grateful for ready-made copy that was near to hand and could be got to the printer without extra trouble. It was not as though the staff was actively biassed one way or the other; it was simply carrying out a routine job in a mechanical fashion. Thus the whole range of cold war terminology meant for use in the British and American press found its way as a matter of course in Indian newspapers without anyone's realizing what it was all about. Expressions like 'the free world,' 'satellite states,' though legitimate in editorial comment, had no meaning beyond propaganda when used in the reporting of news-events. They had, of course, a definite place in American and British political life as they were meant to produce a certain attitude in the public, but against the background of India's own foreign policy they were futile.

Not many Indian journalists were even aware that there was a "problem" here to which an answer had to be found in the interests of consistency. In this connection mention may be made of an address which the Deputy Minister for External Affairs delivered to the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society. Dr. Keskar was speaking of the disadvantages which the first independent Government of India was facing in the formulation of a foreign policy of their own. Among the major disadvantages was a dearth of competent journalists who could provide the necessary guidance, give a lead, or discuss with knowledge and authority specific issues that arose from time to time in international relations, and help the Government of India to decide their course of action.

NEW RESTRICTIONS ON PRESS

On May 12, 1951 the Prime Minister introduced a Bill to amend the Constitution of India. One of the amendments concerning fundamental rights had an important bearing on the freedom of the press. It was explained that one of the objects of the Amending Bill was to prevent abuse of freedom of speech and expression involving security of the State and friendly relations with foreign powers as certain difficulties had been brought to light by judicial decisions and pronouncements.

The amendment involved the addition of three new heads of restriction to the freedom of speech and expression—public order, incitement to an offence, and friendly relations with foreign States. Regarding the first two, a series of Court decisions had invalidated such enactments as Section 4 of the Press Act forbidding publication of anything which offered incitement to or encouraged offence of murder or violence.

The term "public order" is made wider in scope. It has been made clear that the right of freedom of speech and expression to all citizens will be guaranteed provided such right would not prevent the State from making any law imposing, in the interests of the security of the States, friendly relations with foreign states, public order, decency or morality, restrictions on the exercise of such right.

Nor would the right to freedom of speech and expression affect the operation of any existing law so far as it relates to, or prevents the State from, making any law relating to contempt of court, defamation or incitement to offence.

The Law Member in the course of the debate on the Bill argued that the Supreme Court had given a particular decision because its rules of construction or canons of interpretation, unlike those of the U. S. Supreme Court, excluded the doctrine of the inherent "police powers" of every State to protect itself whether the Constitution expressly provided for it or not, and the doctrine of "implied power" by which the grant of one power to the State must be presumed to imply the first.

Given this interpretation by the Supreme Court how could the State discharge its obligations under the directive principles of State policy written into the Constitution if it was not to be allowed to legislate to give effect to them. One had to distinguish between the capacity of Parliament to make a law and the actual enactment of any particular law. The amended Article 1 (2), was therefore only an enabling measure and whether or not a law would abridge a liberty could be discussed only when Parliament was seized of that particular Bill. The amendment gave rise to a good deal of opposition in Parliament, the press and the country.

Large sections of the press and other independent bodies like the Supreme Court Bar Association wrote and spoke in terms of varying disapproval of what they feared might be construed as indecent haste and immoral precedent being shown by a Party Government on the eve of the first General Elections under the new Constitution to make that Constitution the creature of the Party manifesto.

In the course of a debate in Parliament Mr. Deshbandhu Gupta, President of the A.-I.N.E.C. described Mr. Nehru's arguments in favour of curbing the liberty of the press as "lighthearted" and "unconvincing." Freedom of the press, he said, was an essential attribute of democracy and any abridgement of that freedom would be disastrous. The Prime Minister himself had some months ago, while addressing the All-India Newspaper Editors' Conference, declared that it was far better to have a free press even if sections of it tended to be mischievous rather than have a controlled and regulated press. What had caused this sudden change of opinion when the national press had always warmly responded to the advice tendered to it from time to time by Mr. Nehru?

A 12-man deputation met the Prime Minister on behalf of the A.-I.N.E.C. Mr. Nehru told the deputation that while Government would not be prepared to postpone the amendments to Article 19 of the Constitution, they would try to modify them with a view to meeting the viewpoints of the press as far as possible.

Later a resolution was adopted by the A.-I.N.E.C. approving the stand taken by its President demanding the withdrawal of the proposed amendment to Article 19 (2) of the Constitution.

The Committee placed on record its considered opinion that the proposed amendment "is unwarranted and uncalled for," and hoped that the representations made by the President would persuade Government to reconsider their attitude towards the amendment.

The Committee authorised the President to take such further steps as he might consider necessary to protect the liberties of the press in view of the proposed amendment to the Constitution.

PROTEST MEETING

The matter had a sequel when the bill became law and a special session of the A.-I.N.E.C. held in Bombay on June 23 and 24, 1951 decided to suspend the working of all committees of the A.-I.N.E.C. functioning in an advisory capacity with Government both at the Centre and the States. The conference, however, authorized the Committee to review the decision if a situation calling for such a review arose, and referred to the Committee a proposal to refuse its co-operation with all committees and enquiries instituted by Government on matters relating to the press and press laws in India.

The resolution was an amalgamation of a substantial portion of a resolution moved by Mr. Frank Moraes and another by Mr. A. D. Mani. It was passed by 44 votes to 9. Mr. Deshbandhu Gupta presided.

The conference also called upon newspapers to suspend publication on July 12 as a mark of protest against "unwarranted and uncalled for encroachment on freedom of expression."

The conference then passed *nem com* five other resolutions as referred to it by the Subjects Committee, making it clear that the Indian press "will not rest until the amendment to Article 19 (2) is repealed and freedom of expression is restored."

One of the resolutions directed the newspapers to publish the following caption on the top of the leading article "Freedom of expression is our birthright and we shall not rest until it is fully guaranteed by the Constitution."

Another resolution stated: "The conference is of the considered opinion that, in order to impress on the public the fact that what is at stake is not the question of any special privilege to the press but something of direct and immediate concern to them and that the Amendment imperils the exercise of their right to freedom of expression.

"The conference urges on the electorate to demand from every candidate standing for election to Parliament and State Legislatures a pledge to work for and to secure repeal of the Amendment to Article 19 (2), of the Constitution and restoration of freedom of expression."

Mr. Frank Moraes, moving his resolution, said that Government had treated the press in a "cavalier and churlish fashion." He suggested that, in view of the fact that Government were "not interested in our views or representations," the Press should not associate itself with consultative and advisory bodies. That was the minimum, he remarked, they could do.

Mr. A. D. Mani, moving an identical resolution the contents of which were substantially incorporated in Mr. Moraes's resolution, observed that he wanted to give Government room for consideration of the amendment. "We should not shut the door for discussion of the issue," he said.

Mr. Joachim Alva remarked that by passing the resolution they were going to snap the liaison with Government established through press advisory committees.

Mr. J. Natarajan also opposed the resolution on the ground that they would have the effect of putting a blanket on all remedies.

Mr. C. R. Srinivasan referred to the theory put forward by some speakers that the press advisory system had not yielded results and had survived its usefulness. That was not a correct estimate of facts, he said, opposing the resolutions. "The system provided a vital link between the authority and the press," he said. He asked them to revise their opinions as by scrapping the Press Advisory Committees they would not develop any strength.

Mr. Deshbandhu Gupta, in an appeal to members, said he was looking forward to a spirit of accommodation among members and they would pass a resolution in a way acceptable to all. "If the conference is divided in its resolution," he added, "we are starting with a very big handicap in the struggle envisaged by it. The only criterion I would place in adopting the resolution is the general common measure of agreement. That should not be forgotten."

The resolutions of Mr. Moraes and Mr. Mani were suitably modified to accommodate all points of view. The amendment of Mr. Mani authorising the Standing Committee "to review the position in the light of the decisions of the plenary session if a situation calling for such a review arises" was incorporated in the resolution."

Mr. Gupta, in winding up the proceedings, said that the conference which had a membership of 200 represented about 90 per cent of the circulation of newspapers in the country. Its claim to be the most representative body of the press, he added could not therefore be an empty boast. The conference had in it members who had made noteworthy contribution to the cause of freedom.

Six members of the conference in a signed statement expressing their opposition to the resolution said that it would be inopportune and hence unwise to start "direct action against a democratic Government with a large popular support." The proper occasion for such a conflict, it was stated, would be the presentation of the new comprehensive Bill contemplated to be brought before Parliament, in case it is found to be injurious to our interest."

The signatories who did not take part in the voting on the resolution are: Messrs. H. M. Joshi, P. V. Gadgil, J. Natarajan, D. S. Potnis, D. R. Nisal and Mr. Puri (Delhi).

NEWS ITEMS

The President of the All-India Newspaper Editors' Conference appointed a number of observers to study press trends in India. These observers were to send their reports twice a week to the headquarters of the Indo-Pakistan Joint Press Committee at Delhi.

An enquiry into the conduct of a public servent could be public. A ruling to this effect was given by the Government of the Punjab when the question arising out of an enquiry in the State was referred to it in the course of the enquiry. The public servant in question had objected to the reporting of proceedings in the press.

The question of fundamental rights was raised in a case which came up before a full bench of the Punjab High Court in September 1950. The Court set aside an order of the Chief Commissioner of Delhi which forfeited all copies of a book entitled 'Now It Can Be Told.' The forfeiture order was based on the ground that the matter contained in the book tended to promote hatred and enmity between the different classes of the citizens of India. One of the Justices observed, "Forfeiture is calculated to and has the effect of interfering with the freedom of speech." A full bench of the Patna High Court held as 'unconstitutional and void' the provisions in the Indian Press Act giving power to the State Governments to forfeit the security deposited by a printing press, for the plant if it is used for printing a document which is an incitement to violence. The question arose from a petition filed by Shrimati Shaila Bala Devi keeper of a press who had challenged an order of the Government of Bihar demanding from her a security of Rs. 2,000 for publishing a pamphlet which in the opinion of the Government purported to preach violence and bloodshed. Counsel for the petitioner had questioned the validity of Section 4 (1) (A) of the Indian Press (Emergency Powers) Act of 1931 under which the action was being taken. Two of the three judges held that the Sections conflicted with the fundamental right of freedom of speech and expression.

A case of allied interest arose in Bombay when the High Court allowed a petition seeking for a writ of *certiorari* and for quashing the orders issued by the Chief Presidency Magistrate demanding a security of Rs. 1,000 from the printer and publisher of *Soviet Mitra* under the Indian Press (Emergency Powers) Act.

On the other hand a full bench of the Madras High Court held by a majority that the two provisions under Section 4 of the Indian Press Act 1-A and 1-B were valid. These Sub-Sections empowered Government to forfeit the security deposited by a newspaper or the press itself if it incites to violence or brings Government into hatred. Two of the justices held that the Sub-Sections were not repugnant to or inconsistent with the Constitution as they were saved by Section 19(2) of the Constitution which lays down that the freedom of speech and expression did not affect existing legislation. The third judge dissented, taking the view that the two provisions in the Press Act fell outside the scope of legislation permitted under Section 19 (2) of the Constitution. Leave to appeal to the Supreme Court was however granted. The judgment arose out of an application filed by the keeper of the Avanti Press of Rajahmundry and the editor and publisher of *Aruna* of Mangalore.

A bench of the Madras High Court also ruled that Section 3 (1) of the Press Emergency Powers Act was inconsistent with fundamental rights guaranteed under Article 19 (1) (G) of the Constitution which confers on all citizens rights to practise any profession or carry on any business. The judgment arose from the petition of a woman who wanted to start a press and had been asked to deposit a certain sum of money on the ground that she was a Communist sympathiser.

Scarcity of newsprint was a major anxiety. Mr. Hare Krushna Mahtab declared in a speech in March 1951 that stocks of newsprint might be exhausted before the elections. The same anxiety caused Mr. J. C. Jain, General Manager of Bennett, Coleman & Co. to go on a tour of Canada and U.S. in search of newsprint. To cope with the shortage the Government of India passed an order on December 26 limiting the maximum number of pages which a daily newspaper can publish in a week of seven days to 60 or of six days to 48. The order took effect on January 1, 1951. The order also prescribed that all newspapers and dealers in newsprint should submit regular returns every month relating to the stocks, consumption or disposal of newsprint to the Ministry of Industry and Commerce.

In general the shortage of newsprint arose from the fact that while consumption grew production did not keep pace with the consumption. With the devaluation of currencies in relation to the dollar most countries were forced to turn to Scandinavia for newsprint, and Scandinavia was unable to meet the demand. Canada the other great producer of newsprint had contracts with the U.S. and very little to spare for other countries. Thus out of a total production of about 5 million tons as much as 4¼ millions were earmarked for the U.S.

Before this the newspapers which were members of the Indian and Eastern Newspaper Society had agreed on a voluntary cut which became effective on November 6, 1950. A price-page schedule was also fixed. All supplements were to be included in the maximum number of pages allowed for the price. The schedule was to operate only in respect of newsprint pages in excess being allowed if printed on non-newsprint paper.

At a meeting in February 1951 the Indian and Eastern Newspaper Society recommended to the Government that the newsprint control order should be amended. The Society asked that the use of newsprint for any purpose except the production of newspaper should be prohibited and that Open General License for newsprint should continue. The meeting adopted a price-page schedule for seven-day, six-day and weekly publications, and asked Government that all these recommendations might be immediately put into operation. On March 8 the Government of India issued a revised newsprint control order fixing size of newspapers and prices. The order became effective on April 2.

A ruling given by the Speaker of the Madras Assembly caused considerable agitation among newspaper men. The Speaker appeared to have said in effect that any comments on proceedings pending before a legislature which might influence voting in the House would be tantamount to a breach of privilege and would thereby become actionable. The newspaper reaction to this was summed up by the President of the All-India Newspaper Editors' Conference Mr. Deshbandhu Gupta who said in a statement that the principle enunciated by the Speaker of the Madras Assembly struck at the root of democratic practices. It is in fact the specific duty of the press to comment on the proceedings pending before a legislature so as to affect the approach and views of the members of the legislature and influence their votes. If the press did not do this it would fail in one of its fundamental duties to the public which it ought to serve. There were also protests against the Speaker's ruling from many journalists' associations in the country.

Later the Speaker clarified his earlier ruling. He said that it was not every criticism of the proceedings of the House by newspapers influencing the vote that is a breach of privilege but only such criticism as is improper. Libel upon members, contempt of the House, attempt to bribe members and so on will amount to improper criticism or influence.

INDIAN NEWS AGENCIES

Press Trust of India (P.T.I.).
Director and Editor: Sir Usha Nath Sen.
357, *Hornby Road, Bombay.*
United Press of India.
Managing Director: B. Sen Gupta.
P-4, Ganesh Chandra Avenue, Calcutta.
Free Press Agency.
21, *Dalal Street, Bombay.*
Globe Agency.
Tropical Bldg., Connaught Circus, New Delhi.
Dhiman Press.
Ludhiana (Punjab).
Hindustan Samachar.
29, *Ghoga Street, Bombay* 1.

FOREIGN AGENCIES

Reuter's
Associated Press of America.
United Press of America.
Agence France Presse.
Tass News Agency (Russian).
Central News Agency (Chinese).
Globe Agency (Hulton), Ltd.
Antara (Indonesia).
Exchange Telegraph News Agency (British).
British United Press.

INFORMATION SERVICES

INDIAN INFORMATION SERVICE

Indian Government publicity work is carried out chiefly through the following agencies:

1. All-India Radio, 2. Press Information Bureau, 3. Publications Division, 4. Films Division.

Every Ministry has an information officer attached to it. And the whole service is grouped together under a Ministry called the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting. For chief officials see under Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, Government of India.

BRITISH INFORMATION SERVICES

('Eastern House', Man Singh Road).
Director: W. F. King.
Deputy Director: J. T. Hughes.
Principal Economic Information Officer: D. F. Kerr.
Editor-in-Chief: D. D. Condon.
Films Officer: Group Captain L. W. C. Pearce-Gervis.
Administrative Officer: W. R. Lythgo.
Librarian and Head of Research and Reference, H. A. Hollingbery.
Bombay Office: (Mercantile Bank Bldg., Mahatma Gandhi Road).
Regional Information Officer: D. R. F. Brower.
Economic Information Officer: R. Mc. C. Samples.
Calcutta Office: (1, Harrington Street).
Regional Information Officer: Vacant.
Economic Information Officer: B. Dunelm Brown.
Madras Office: ("Airways House", Mount Road).
Information Officer: J. A. Borron.

DOMINION OF CANADA

(New Delhi: 4, Aurangzeb Road).
Commercial Counsellor: Richard Grew.
Bombay: Gresham Assurance House, Mint Road.
Acting Commercial Secy.: R. F. Renwick.

COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA

(Australian High Commission, Connaught Place, New Delhi).
Public Relations Officer: John D. Keating.

U. S. INFORMATION SERVICE
(54, Queensway, New Delhi).

Counsellor of Embassy and Chief Public Affairs Officer: Clare H. Timberlake.
Information Officer and Attache: William C. Bourne.
Cultural Officer and Attache: Dr. Horace I. Poleman.
Regional Films Officer and Assistant Attache: Gilford W. Remington.
Assistant Information Officer and Assistant Attache: Miss Urmila V. Kokatnur.
Administrative Officer, U.S.I.S. and Assistant Attache: Charles L. Mullin, Jr.
Director of Library Services: Miss Elizabeth G. Robb.

BOMBAY OFFICE
(Adelphi Building, 3, Queen's Road).

Public Affairs Officer: Robert W. Erhman.
Cultural Affairs Officer: Lawrence B. Wilson.
Information Officer: T. Edward Munce.
Operations Officer: Jerry F. Seffens.
Promotion Officer: Daniel H. Lewis.
Librarian: Miss Gladys L. Samuelson.

CALCUTTA OFFICE
(18, Esplanade Mansions, 8, Esplanade East).

Public Affairs Officer: George Mann.
Information Officer: Frances H. Baker.
Assistant Cultural Officer: Phillip LaSage.
Librarian: Miss Jane Fairweather.

MADRAS OFFICE
(162, Mount Road, Madras).

Public Affairs Officer and Consul: Stanley R. Chartrand.
Information Officer and Vice-Consul: Gordon P. Hagberg.
Operations Officer and Vice-Consul: Donald E. McNertney.
Librarian: Miss Martha Guse.

TURKEY
(Turkish Embassy, Maiden's Hotel, New Delhi)

EGYPT
Consul-General: Raouf Kaldas.
Vice-Consul: Saad Martada.

TASS NEWS AGENCY
(Travancore House, Curzon Road, New Delhi).
F. Matveev

U. N. INFORMATION CENTRE
(Theatre Communication Building, Connaught Place, New Delhi).

Director: B. Leitgeber.
Dy. Director: Kamal Kumar.

FOREIGN CORRESPONDENTS IN NEW DELHI

Agence France-Presse: S. R. Bhal, Felix J. Naggar (28, Sher Shingh Bldg., Con. Circus); *The Times, London:* Eric Britter (28, Cecil Hotel); *The News Chronicle, London:* Norman Cliff (83, Cecil Hotel); *A.P.A.:* Harold K. Milks (55, Cecil Hotel), S. S. Harrison (57, Cecil Hotel); *Financial Times, London:* Sri Krishna (15/1, Parliament Street); *Time:* A. Rangaswami (14A-90, Pusa Road); *Life:* James Burke (Maiden's Hotel); *British Movietone News:* P. Mohan (72, Queensway); *Reuters:* M. M. Nerurkar (4, Parliament Street), Adrienne V. Farrell (4, Parliament Street); *Paramount News:* Ved Prakash (72, Queensway); *Tass News Agency:* A. Pronin, F. Matveev (6, Canning Road); *British United Press:* P. D. Sharma (26, Narindra Place); *Exchange Telegraph News Agency, London:* Lawrence P. Atkinson (74, Pataudi House); *A.P.A.:* R. Satakopan (19, Narindra Place); *B.B.C.:* Douglas Stuart (4, Maiden's Hotel); *Antara:* M. Subhan (Delhi Gymkhana Club); *Kemsley Newspapers, London:* A. C. S. Tebbitt (16, Aurangzeb Road); *The New York Times:* Robert Trumbull, T. S. Rajagopalan (140, Hotel Imperial); *The Chicago Tribune:* Percy Wood (126, Hotel Imperial); *New York Herald Tribune:* Margaret Parton (Mrs. Eric Britter) (28, Cecil Hotel); *Alzaman* (Cairo): Mohamed Auda (76 Western House, Curzon Road); *Globe News Agency:* Aubrey Herbert (76, Aurangzeb Road, Swiss Hotel), Russel Spurr (7, Fancy Lane, Calcutta); *The Observer:* Rawle Knox (Swiss Hotel); *Star Weekly* (Toronto): Jean Lyon (Maiden's Hotel); *Daily Mail:* Alan Humphreys (Swiss Hotel).

U.S.A. CORRESPONDENTS IN BOMBAY

Unted Press of America: John Hlavacek (Mubarak Manzil, Apollo Street).

McGraw-Hill World News, The Christian Science Monitor: W. Gordon Graham (63, New Marine Lines).

PRESS ASSOCIATIONS, SOCIETIES

Empire Press Union, Indian Section (c/o *The Hindu*, Madras); *Chairman:* K. Srinivasan.

Indian and Eastern Newspaper Society: *President*, Ramnath Goenka (*Indian Express*); *Deputy President*, Suresh Chandra Majumdar (*Hindustan Standard*); *Hony. Treasurer*, J. K. Cowley (*Statesman*); *Secretary*, Asu De.

London Committee of The Indian and Eastern Newspaper Society: *President*, Sir Stanley Reed; *Chairman:* Douglas Shaw; *Hon. Secy.:* Joe Henry Buchi; *Hony. Treasurer*, B. J. Kirchner.

Press Trust of India: *Chairman*, Kasturi Srinivasan (*Hindu, Madras*), *Trustee on Reuters' Trust*, C. R. Srinivasan (*Swadesamitran, Madras*); *Director on Reuters' Board*, Devadas Gandhi (*Hindustan Times, Delhi*); *Alternate Director on Reuters' Board*, Ramnath Goenka (*Indian Express, Madras*); *General Manager:* A. S. Bharatan.

All-India Newspaper Editors' Conference: *President*, Deshbandhu Gupta (*Daily Tej*, Delhi).

The Indian Languages Newspapers' Association (138, Medows Street, Fort, Bombay).

Calcutta Press Club (C40, College Street Market, Calcutta 12).

Southern India Journalists' Federation (5-6, Sri Rama Buildings, Mount Road, Madras 2).

U. P. Working Journalists' Federation.

Indian Newspapers Co-operative Society Ltd. (Janmabhoomi Bhavan, Ghoga Street, Fort, Bombay).

Calcutta Printing Press Owners' Association (32, Upper Circular Road, Calcutta).

Press Owners' Association, Bombay (196-B, Gaiwadi, Girgaon, Bombay).

INDIAN DAILIES

It is estimated that there are about 300 dailies and over 3,500 periodicals in India.

Here is a list of English daily newspapers with the places of publication (the list is not exhaustive):

Hindustan Times (New Delhi); *Indian News Chronicle* (Delhi); *Indian Express* (Madras); *Hindu* (Madras); *Mail* (Madras); *Times of India* (Bombay and Delhi); *Free Press Journal* (Bombay); *Bombay Chronicle* (Bombay); *Bombay Sentinel* (Bombay); *Bharat* (Bombay); *National Standard* (Bombay); *Evening News of India* (Bombay); *Advance* (Calcutta); *Amrita Bazar Patrika* (Calcutta); *Hindustan Standard* (Calcutta); *National Herald* (Lucknow); *Pioneer* (Lucknow); *Leader* (Allahabad); *Searchlight* (Patna); *Indian Nation* (Patna); *Hitavada* (Nagpur); *Tribune* (Ambala); *Assam Tribune* (Gauhati); *Evening News* (Patna); *Evening Star* (Bombay); *Free Press Bulletin* (Bombay); *Hindustan Times Evening News* (Delhi); *Nagpur Times* (Nagpur); *Indian Republic* (Madras); *Liberator* (Madras); *Eastern Times* (Cuttack); *New Orissa* (Cuttack); *The Nation* (Calcutta); *The Statesman* (Calcutta); *Telegraph* (Kanpur); *Daily News* (Bangalore); *Daily Post* (Bangalore); *Deccan Herald* (Bangalore); *Daily News* (Secunderabad); *Deccan Chronicle* (Secunderabad), *New Life* (Hyderabad).

LAWS AND ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE

IT may be supposed that the system of Laws and administration of Justice as it has prevailed in British India in the past is now only a matter of historical interest. The political revolution, the change of Government and the emergence of India as a Sovereign Democratic Republic, would naturally involve a fundamental change in the foundations of the legal and judicial system, which can no longer depend on the British Crown and Parliament for its authority and stability. The laws and the law-courts in India now derive their authority from the Constitution of India which was passed on 26th November 1949. The writs which for generations ran over the length and breadth of the country in the name of the British Sovereign, will now run in the name of the President of the Republic of India. Nevertheless, notwithstanding a complete severence in fact and in form of India's political and legal relation with England, all the existing laws continue to operate in India as before. Article 372 of the Constitution provides *inter alia* that, subject to the other provisions of the Constitution, all the laws in force in the territory of India immediately before the commencement of the Constitution shall continue in force therein until altered, repealed or amended by a competent Legislature or other competent authority. For the purpose of bringing the provisions of any law in force in the territory of India into accord with the provisions of the Constitution, it is further provided that the President may by order make such adaptations and modifications of such law as may be necessary or expedient. Article 13 of the Constitution provides that all laws in force in the territory of India immediately before the commencement of the Constitution, in so far as they are inconsistent with the provisions of the Constitution relating to Fundamental Rights (Part III) shall to the extent of such inconsistency be void. The State is also debarred from making any law which takes away or abridges the Fundamental Rights conferred by this Part, and any law made in contravention shall be void to the extent of such contravention (Art. 13 (2)). Article 14 ensures to all persons equality before the law by providing that the State shall not deny to any person equality before the law or the equal protection of the laws within the territory of India. The continuity of the existing laws and legal procedure is further ensured by Article 375 under which all courts of civil, criminal and revenue jurisdiction and all authorities and officers continue to exercise their respective functions subject to the provisions of the Constitution.

It is therefore necessary to give a brief survey of the laws and the legal and judicial system as they prevailed in the past in British India.

The indigenous law of India is personal and divisible with reference to the two great classes of the population, Hindu and Muslim. Both systems claim divine origin and are inextricably interwoven with religion, and each exists in combination with a law based on custom. At first the tendency of the British was to make their law public and territorial, and on the establishment of the Supreme Court at Calcutta in 1773 and the advent of English lawyers as judges, they proceeded to apply it to Europeans and Indians alike. This error was rectified by the Declaratory Act of 1780, by which Parliament declared that as against a Hindu the Hindu law and usage, and as against a Muslim the laws and customs of Islam should be applied. The rules of the Shastras and the Koran have been in some cases altered and relaxed. Instances can be found in the Bengal Sati Regulation Act of 1829, the Indian Slavery Act, 1843, the Caste Disabilities Removal Act of 1850, the Hindu Widows' Remarriage Act, 1856, and some other Acts and Codes. To quote the Imperial Gazetteer, "A certain number of the older English statutes and the English common law are to a limited extent still in force in the Presidency Towns as applicable to Europeans, while much of the old Hindu and Muslim law is everywhere personal to their native fellow-subjects; but apart from these, and from the customary law, which is as far as possible recognised by the Courts, the law of British India is the creation of statutory enactments made for it either at Westminster or by the authorities in India to whom the necessary law-giving functions have from time to time been delegated."

As regards codification of Hindu law it is interesting to note that Mill pleaded for a Code in 1832, and a Committee was appointed by the House of the Commons to report upon its possibility. The Committee recommended the appointment of a Royal Commission to codify both the Hindu and the Mahomedan laws. Lord Macaulay was entrusted with the work. However in 1855 the Law Commission abandoned the effort.

During recent years, however, there has been a determined demand on the part of social reformers, and various women's organisations in India for an amendment of the Hindu Law so as to bring it into line with progressive social opinion, in consonance with the spirit of the times. The Draft Hindu Code now before the Indian Parliament aims at abolishing the archaic principles of the ancient system of law, the removal of sex and caste disabilities, and generally simplifying, secularising, and modernising the law governing all Hindus, including Lingayats, Buddhists, Jains and Sikhs. In the meanwhile, an opposite tendency has been observable among the Muslims, who by recent legislation have sought to revert to the law of the Shariat, discountenancing the application of Hindu Law and custom to the sections of the Muslim community who as converts from Hinduism had retained Hindu Law in matters of inheritance and succession. Apart from this, the entire legal system which has hitherto prevailed in the country is in course of time bound to undergo a profound transformation by reason of the withdrawal of British rule and the partition of India.

CODIFICATION

Before the transfer of India to the Crown the law was in a state of great confusion. Sir Henry Cunningham described it as "hopelessly unwieldy, entangled and confusing." The first steps toward general codification were taken in 1833, when a Commission was appointed, of which Lord Macaulay was the moving spirit, to prepare a penal code. Twenty-two years elapsed before it became law, during which period it underwent revision from his successors in the Law Membership, and especially from Sir Barnes Peacock, the last Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Calcutta. The Penal Code, which became law in 1860, was followed in 1861 by a Code of Criminal Procedure. Substantially the whole criminal law of India and Pakistan is contained in these two Codes. One of the most eminent lawyers who ever came to India, Sir James Stephen, said "The Indian penal code may be described as the criminal law of England freed from all technicalities and superfluities, systematically arranged and modified in some few particulars (they are surprisingly few) to suit the circumstances of British India. It is practically impossible to misunderstand the Code."

The Indian Penal Code has from time to time been amended. The rules of Civil Procedure have been embodied in the Code of Civil Procedure. The Code of Civil Procedure was remodelled in 1908 and the Code of Criminal Procedure in 1898. These Codes as amended from time to time are now in force. The years between 1870 and 1885 saw a great deal of legislative activity in British India, and important branches of the law, like Evidence, Contract, Transfer of Property, Trusts, Negotiable Instruments, etc., were codified in the form of Acts of the Indian Legislature applicable to the whole of British India. These, amended from time to time and supplemented by rules derived from English decisions, constitute the bulk of the law administered in India today.

A Federal Court is a necessary element of any Federal Constitution. It is at once the guardian and interpreter of the Constitution, and arbiter of the disputes between the Federal Units. The Government of India Act of 1935 accordingly provided (Sections 200-218) for the constitution of a Federal Court.

As a result of the Indian Independence Act of 1947 and the orders passed under that Act, India was split up into two Dominions and provisions were made for the establishment of two separate Federal Courts for the two Dominions.

The Federal Court under the Government of India Act of 1935 continued to be the Federal Court of the Dominion of India until the establishment of the Supreme Court of India under the Constitution of India on January 26, 1950.

SUPREME COURT OF INDIA

Art. 124 of the Constitution provides for the establishment of a Supreme Court of India consisting of a Chief Justice of India, and, until Parliament by law prescribes a larger number, of not more than seven judges. Every judge of the Supreme Court shall be appointed by the President and shall hold office until he attains the age of sixty-five years. In the course of appointment of a Judge the Chief Justice shall always be consulted. Only a citizen of India who has been for at least 5 years a judge of a High Court, or for 10 years an advocate of a High Court, or in the opinion of the President a distinguished jurist, is qualified to be appointed judge of the Supreme Court. A judge of the Supreme Court is not liable to be removed from his office except by an order of the President passed after an address by each House of Parliament, supported by a majority of the total membership of that House, and by a majority of not less than two-thirds of the members of that House present and voting, has been presented to the President in the same session for such removal, on the ground of proved misbehaviour or incapacity. No person who has held office as a judge of the Supreme Court shall plead or act in any court or before any authority within the territory of India. The Supreme Court is a court of record with all the powers of such a court including the power to punish for contempt. The seat of the Court is to be in Delhi or such other place as the Chief Justice with the approval of the President may from time to time appoint.

The Supreme Court has exclusive original jurisdiction in any dispute (*a*) between the Government of India and one or more States; (*b*) between Government of India and one or more States on one side and one or more other States, on the other; (*c*) between two or more States, if and in so far as the dispute involves any question (whether of law or fact) on which the existence or extent of a legal right depends. (Article 131). The Appellate jurisdiction of the Supreme Court extends over all appeals from any judgment, decree or final order of a High Court, in civil, criminal or other proceedings, if the High Court certifies that the case involves a substantial question of law as to the interpretation of the Constitution. If the High Court refuses such a certificate the Supreme Court may grant special leave to appeal in a proper case (Art. 132). An appeal shall also lie to the Supreme Court from a High Court in civil matters, when the amount or value of the subject matter in dispute is not less than

Rs. 20,000 or the High Court certifies the case to be a fit one for appeal to the Supreme Court (Art. 133). In criminal matters under Art. 134 an appeal lies to the Supreme Court from any judgment, final order or sentence of a High Court, if the High Court has (*a*) on appeal reversed an order of acquittal of an accused person and sentenced him to death; or (*b*) has withdrawn for trial before itself any case from a subordinate court and has in such trial convicted the accused person and sentenced him to death; or (*c*) the High Court has certified that the case is a fit one for appeal. For purposes of appeals to the Supreme Court, the Judicial Commissioners' Courts are to be considered as High Courts. Under Art. 136 discretion is given to the Supreme Court to grant special leave to appeal from any judgment, decree, sentence or order, in any matter passed by any Court or Tribunal in the territory of India. The jurisdiction and powers of the Federal Court under the existing law are also exercisable by the Supreme Court (Art. 135) including the advisory power to give its opinion on questions of law or fact referred to it by the President (Art. 143). The law declared by the Supreme Court shall be binding on all courts in the territory of India. Parliament has the power to legislate on the constitution, organisation, jurisdiction and powers of the Supreme Court.

Article 32 of the Constitution guarantees the right to move the Supreme Court by appropriate proceedings for the enforcement of Fundamental Rights; and for the enforcement of such rights the Supreme Court has power to issue directions or orders or writs, including writs in the nature of Habeas Corpus, mandamus, prohibition, *quō warranto* and *Certiorari* whichever may be appropriate. Power is given to Parliament to enlarge the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court by appropriate legislation (Art. 138). The jurisdiction of the Judicial Committee of His Brittanic Majesty's Privy Council over appeals from India in all matters is now abolished. The royal prerogative to grant pardons, reprieves, respites or remissions of punishments now resides in the President (Art. 72).

The Judges of the Federal Court holding office immediately before the commencement of the Constitution become automatically judges of the Supreme Court, and all suits, appeals and proceedings, pending in the Federal Court shall stand removed to the Supreme Court.

Under Art. 348, all proceedings in the Supreme Court and in every High Court in India and the authoritative text of all Bills and Acts of Parliament and the State Legislatures and of all Ordinances promulgated by the President or Governors or Rajpramukhs of States, and of all orders, rules and regulations issued under the Constitution or any law shall be in the English language. If this language is to be replaced by any other language, Parliament must legislate to that effect.

HIGH COURTS

High Courts of Judicature were constituted by the Indian High Courts Act of 1861 for Bengal, Bombay and Madras, and later for Uttar Pradesh and the Punjab (old, undivided) superseding the old supreme and Sudder Courts. Later still High Courts were constituted for other States.

The Judges were appointed by the Crown; they held office until they attained the age of 60 years; formerly one-third of their number were barristers, one third were recruited from the judicial branch of the Indian Civil Service, the remaining places being available for persons who held certain Judicial Offices in the country or were lawyers qualified in the country. This fixed proportion of Barrister and Civilian Judges was later abolished by the Government of India Act, 1935. Trial by jury is the rule in original criminal cases before the High Courts, but juries are never employed in civil suits.

Articles 214-237 of the Indian Constitution Act of 1949 make provision for the establishment of High Courts and subordinate courts in the States. The High Court exercising jurisdiction in relation to any State immediately before the commencement of the Constitution is to be deemed to be the High Court for the corresponding State. Every High Court is to be a court of record and shall have all powers of such court including the power to commit for contempt of itself. Every judge of a High Court shall be appointed by the President after consultation with the Chief Justice of India, the Governor of the State and the Chief Justice of the particular High Court; and he shall hold office until he attains the age of sixty years. A person is not qualified to be appointed a judge of a High Court unless he is a citizen of India and has either held judicial office or practised as an advocate for 10 years in any of the States. A High Court judge is not liable to be removed from his office except in the manner provided in Art. 124 (4) for the removal of a judge of the Supreme Court of India. No person who has held office of a Judge of a High Court can plead or act in any court or before any authority in the territory of India. The Chief Justice of a High Court may with the previous consent of the President, request a retired High Court Judge to sit and act as the Judge of the High Court of that State. Power is given to the President in consultation with the Chief Justice of India to transfer a judge from one High Court to any other High Court in India (Art. 222). Article 225 preserves the jurisdiction and powers of the High Courts as they existed immediately before the commencement of the Constitution. Art. 226 gives to every High Court in India power throughout its jurisdiction to issue to any person or authority including Government directions, orders, writs, including writs in the nature of Habeas Corpus, mandamus, prohibition, *quo warranto* and *Certiorari* for the enforcement of Fundamental Rights (Art. 226). The High Courts have powers of superintendence over all subordinate Courts within their respective jurisdiction. Legislation affecting Constitution and Organisation of the High Courts can be passed by Parliament alone.

LOWER COURTS

The Code of Criminal Procedure provides for the constitution of inferior criminal courts styled courts of session and courts of magistrates. Every State, outside the towns of Madras, Bombay and Calcutta, is divided into sessions divisions consisting of one or more districts, and every sessions division has a court of session and a sessions judge, with assistants if need be. These stationary sessions courts are like the English Assizes, and are competent to try all accused persons duly committed, and to inflict any punishment authorised by law, but sentences of death are subject to confirmation by the highest court of criminal appeal in the State.

Magistrates' courts are of three classes with descending powers. Provision is made and largely utilised in the towns, for the appointment of honorary magistrates; in the towns of Madras, Bombay and Calcutta Presidency magistrates deal with magisterial cases and benches of Justices of the Peace or honorary magistrates dispose of the less important cases. Article 50 of the Constitution lays down that the States shall take steps to separate the judiciary from the executive in the public service of the States. Such a separation was already in vogue in the State of Hyderabad. In the State of Madras this system has been introduced in two Districts. At the time of writing (March 1951) the Legislature of the State of Bombay is discussing a Bill to put into effect separation of the judiciary from the executive.

The constitution and jurisdiction of the inferior civil courts varies. Broadly speaking one district and sessions judge is appointed for each district. As District Judge he presides in its principal civil court of original jurisdiction. His functions as Sessions Judge have already been described. For these posts members of the Indian Civil Service are mainly selected though some appointments are made from the Provincial Service. Next come the Subordinate Judges and Munsiffs, the extent of whose original jurisdiction varies in different parts of the country.

There are in addition a number of Courts of Small Causes, with jurisdiction to try money suits up to Rs. 500. In the towns of Madras, Bombay and Calcutta where the Chartered High Courts have original jurisdiction, Small Causes Courts dispose of money suits up to Rs. 2,000. As Insolvency Courts the Chartered High Courts of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras have jurisdiction in the Presidency towns. In the mofussil similar powers were conferred on the District Courts by the Provincial Insolvency Act of 1920.

Coroners are appointed only for the Presidency Towns of Calcutta and Bombay. Elsewhere their duties are discharged by the ordinary staff of magistrates and police officers unaided by jurors.

LEGAL PRACTITIONERS

Legal practitioners in India were divided into Barristers-at-Law, Advocates of the Federal and the High Courts; Vakils and Attorneys (Solicitors) of High Courts and Pleaders, Mukhtiars and revenue agents. Advocates of the Federal Court were divided into two classes, senior Advocates and Advocates. All Advocates in the Supreme Court must be instructed by Agents on the Rolls of the Supreme Court Agents and no Senior can appear without a Junior. Barristers and Advocates are admitted by each High Court to practise in it and its subordinate courts; and they alone are admitted to practise on the original side of some of the Chartered High Courts. (But this distinction has recently been abolished in the Bombay High Court). Vakils were persons duly qualified who were admitted to practise on the appellate side of the chartered High Courts and in the Courts subordinate to the High Courts. Attorneys are required to qualify before admission to practise in much the same way as in England. The rule that a solicitor must instruct counsel prevails only on the original side of the Bombay and Calcutta High Courts. Pleaders practise in the subordinate courts in accordance with rules framed by the High Courts. The Bar Councils Act of 1926 aims at abolishing the various grades of practitioners, and under it each of the High Courts maintains a roll of advocates entitled to practise within its jurisdiction.

The Government of India have their own law colleague in the Legal Member of the Union Cabinet. All Government measures are drafted in his department after their substance is decided upon by the administrative departments concerned. Outside the Cabinet the principal law officer of the Government of India is the Attorney-General appointed by the President. At Bombay and Calcutta the Government of India have their own solicitors. Each of the State Governments has its own Advocate-General.

Article 76 of the Constitution of India says that for the post of Attorney-Generalship the President shall appoint a person qualified to be appointed a Judge of the Supreme Court. It shall be the duty of the Attorney-General to give advice to the Govt. of India upon such legal matters and to perform such other duties of a legal character as may be referred or assigned to him by the President, and to discharge the functions conferred upon him by the Constitution. In the performance of his duties the Attorney-General shall have right of audience in all Courts in the territory of India. Under Article 165 the Governor of each State is authorised to appoint a person qualified to be appointed a Judge of a High Court to be Advocate-General for the State.

The State Governments have usually their own Legal Remembrancers and professional lawyers as Government Advocates and Assistant Government Advocates.

Sheriffs are attached to the High Court of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay. They are appointed by Government, selected from non-officials of standing, the detailed work being done by deputy sheriffs, who are officers of Court.

LAW REPORTS

The official State Law reports were published in six series—Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Allahabad, Patna and Nagpur under the authority of the State Governments concerned. They contained cases determined by the High Court and by the Federal Court and the Judicial Committee on appeal from the High Courts. These appeals raised questions of very great importance and the Council of Law Reporting for England and Wales showed their appreciation by printing the Indian Appeals in a separate volume and also compiled a digest of Indian Appeals covering the period 1874-1923. The other States had series of reports issued under the authority either of the Judiciary or the State.

In addition to these reports a separate series was published under the authority of the Federal Court of India containing reports of the decision of that Court and of the Judicial Committee on appeal from the Federal Court. Now the series is published under the authority of the Supreme Court of India and contains reports of the decisions of that Court.

Assam Judicial Department

The Hon'ble Mr. T. V. Thadani, B.Sc. (Bom.), B.A. (Cantab.), Bar-at-Law	Chief Justice.
The Hon'ble Rai Sahib Justice Ram Labhaya	Puisne Judge.
D. N. Choudhury, B.Sc.	Registrar (Actg.).
Sarat Kumar Dutt, B.Sc. (London), Bar-at-Law	Superintendent and Remembrancer of Legal Affairs and Administrator-General and Official Trustee.
Ramesh Chandra Chaudhury, M.A., B.L.	Law Assistant to the Legal Remembrancer
F. A. Ahmed, Bar-at-Law	Advocate-General.
Dinanath Medhi, B.Sc., B.L.	Senior Government Advocate.
Rajani Kanta Goswami, B.L.	Junior Do. do.
C. Lyndoh, B.L.	Do. do. do.
Bhabendra Nath Chaudhury, M.A., B.L., Advocate, High Court	Editor, Law Reports.
Rajani Kanta Goswami, B.L., Advocate	Law Reporter, High Court.

Bihar Judicial Department

The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Lakshmikant Jha	Chief Justice.
The Hon'ble Mr. Justice James Greig Shearer, I.C.S., Bar-at-Law	Puisne Judge.
The Hon'ble Mr. Justice David Ezra Reuben, I.C.S., Bar-at-Law	Do.
The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Saiyid Jafar Imam, Bar-at-Law	Do.
The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Sudhanshu Kumar Das, I.C.S.	Do.
The Hon'ble Mr. Justice V. Ramaswami, I.C.S., Barrister-at-Law	Do.
The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Jugal Kishore Narayan, M.A., B.L.	Do.
The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Brahmadev Prashad Jamuar, Barrister-at-Law	Do.
The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Sarjoo Prashad	Do.
The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Bashisth Narain Rai	Do.
The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Chandreshwar Prasad Sinha	Do.
The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Subodh Chandra Chatterji	Do.
The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Khaleel Ahmad	Do.
Saiyid Naqui Imam, Barrister-at-Law	Registrar.
Anant Singh, B.L.	Deputy Registrar.
Sris Chandra Lala, M.A., B.L.	Assistant Registrar.
Udit Narayan Varma	Commissioner for Oaths and Affidavits.

Bombay Judicial Department

The Hon'ble Mr. M. C. Chagla	Chief Justice.
The Hon'ble Mr. Justice N. H. C. Coyajee	Judge.
The Hon'ble Mr. Justice G. S. Rajadhyaksha	Do.
The Hon'ble Mr. Justice N. H. Bhagwati	Do.
The Hon'ble Mr. Justice R. S. Bavdekar	Do.
The Hon'ble Mr. Justice P. B. Gajendragadkar	Do.
The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Y. V. Dixit	Do.
The Hon'ble Mr. Justice S. R. Tendolkar	Do.
The Hon'ble Mr. Justice H. K. Chainani	Do.
The Hon'ble Mr. Justice J. C. Shah	Do.
The Hon'ble Mr. Justice D. V. Vyas	Do.
Rahimtoola, S. J., B.A., LL.B., J.P., Bar-at-Law	Prothonotary and Sr. Master.
Kirtikar, A. H., B.A., LL.B., Bar-at-Law	Master and Registrar in Equity and Commissioner for taking Accounts and Local Investigations.
Engineer, S. E., B.A., LL.B., Attorney-at-Law	1st Asstt. Master (on deputation), Regr., City Civil Court, Bombay.
Ayyar, A. R. N.	2nd Asstt. Master.
Vakil, S. H. A., B.A., Bar-at-Law	Insolvency Registrar.
Daji, K. N., Advocate	Associate.
Dalvi, G. V., B.Sc. (Bom.), B.A. (Cantab.), Bar-at-Law	3rd Asstt. Master (Offg. 1st Asstt. Master).
Vadigar, E. N., B.Com., LL.B., Advocate	Associate (Offg. 3rd Asstt. Master).
Easwaran, T. S.	Associate (Regr., Parsi Matrimonial Court).
Jani, S. R., Bar-at-Law	Associate.
Garde, V. G.	Offg. Associate.
Cooper, J. R., B.Sc., LL.B., Advocate	2nd Asstt. to the Court Receiver.
Mahadevia, G. G., M.A., LL.M., Advocate	Official Assignee.
Vaidya, G. A., B.A., LL.B., Attorney-at-Law	Dy. Official Assignee.
Mathalone, Reginald, B.A., LL.B. (Cantab.), Bar-at-Law	Court Receiver and Liquidator.
Banaji, Dr. D. R., M.A., LL.B., D. Litt.	1st Asstt. to the Court Receiver.
Pratap, C. J., B.A., Bar-at-Law	Third Asstt. to the Court Receiver.
Nadkarni, A. R.	Clerk of the State in addition Registrar, City Sessions Court Bombay.
Vesuvala, N. A., B.A., LL.B., Attorney-at-Law	Taxing Master.
Dastur, Khan Saheb K. K., B.A., LL.B., Advocate	Master and Asstt. Prothonotary.
Kapadia, P. P., F.R.I.B.A. (Lond.), B.A., B.E. (Civil)	Sheriff of Bombay.
Nemazie, M. K., LL.B., J.P.	Dy. Sheriff of Bombay.
Palekar, S. B., B.A. (Hons.), LL.B.	Registrar, High Court, Appellate Side.
Belavadi, S. H., B.Sc., LL.B.	Dy. Registrar & Sealer, High Court, Appellate Side.
Torne, G. G., B.A.	Asstt. Regr. (Admn.).
Gadkari, V. R., B.A., LL.B.	Asstt. Regr. (Taxing & Judicial).

Bombay Judicial Department—(*contd.*)

Mahale, R. L., B.A., LL.B.	Asstt. Regr. (Civil & Criminal).
Chaubal, M. A., B.A., LL.B.	Asstt. Regr. (Estt.).
M. P. Amin	Advocate-General.
Lad, P. M., I.C.S.	Remembrancer of Legal Affairs.
Choksi, H. M., B.A. (Hon.), LL.B.	Government Pleader, High Court.
Little & Co.	Government Solicitors.
Vachha, P. P., M.A., LL.B., Advocate (O.S.)	Editor, Indian Law Reports.
Rodrigues, Leo, LL.B., Advocate (O.S.), J.P.	Administrator-General & Official Trustee.
Rao, V. L.	Secy. to the Hon'ble the Chief Justice.
Parikh, S. M., B.A.	Offg. Chief Translator & Interpreter.

Madhya Pradesh Judicial Department

Sinha, The Hon. Mr. Justice Bhuvaneshvar Prashad	Chief Justice.
Hemeon, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Clarence Reid, I.C.S.	Puisne Judge.
Hidayatullah, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice M., Bar-at-Law	Do.
Mangalmurti, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice K. T., B.Sc., LL.B., I.C.S.	Do.
Rao, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice R. K., Bar-at-Law	Do.
Mudholker, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice J. R., B.A., LL.B. (Cantab.), Bar-at-Law	Do.
Sen, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Vivekaranjan	Do.
Deo, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Pandurang Purshottam, M.A., LL.B.	Do.
Sheode, T. L.	Advocate-General.
Ahmed, Syed Matin, B.A., LL.B.	Registrar.
Razzaque, M. A., B.Sc., LL.B.	Deputy Registrar.
Trivedi, R. G., M.Sc., LL.B.	Do.
Deo, G. R., B.A., LL.B.	Editor for the Indian Law Reports, Nagpur Series.

Madras Judicial Department

Rajamannar, The Hon'ble Mr. P. V., B.A., B.L.	Chief Justice.
Satyanarayana Rao, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice P., M.A., M.L.	Judge.
Govinda Menon, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice P., B.A., B.L.	Do.
Panchapagesa Sastry, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice S., B.A., M.L.	Do.
Subba Rao, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice K., B.A., B.L.	Do.
Rajagopalan, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice P., I.C.S.	Do.
Mack, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice E. E., I.C.S., Bar-at-Law	Do.
Somasundaram, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice N., B.A., B.L.	Do.
Viswanatha Sastri, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice A. V., B.A., B.L.	Do.
Raghava Rao, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Ch., M.A., B.L.	Do.
Ayyar, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice, A. S. P., M.A., I.C.S., Bar-at-Law	Do.
Balakrishna Ayyar, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice P. V., I.C.S.	Do.
Chandra Reddy, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice P., B.A., B.L.	Do.
Krishnaswami Nayudu, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice W. S., B.A., B.L.	Do.
Basheer Ahmed Sayeed, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice, B.A., B.L.	Do.
Kuttikrishna Menon, K., B.A., B.L.	Advocate-General, Madras.
John and Row	State Counsel.
Satyanarayana Raju, P., B.A., B.L.	Government Pleader.
Chowdary, V. V., M.A., B.L., LL.D., Bar-at-Law	Law Reporter.
Kotyswara Rao, N.	Do.
Rajagopalachariar, K. S.	Do.
Rangaswami Ayyangar, V. T.	Public Prosecutor.
Aingar, R. N., Bar-at-Law	Editor, Indian Law Reports.
Viswanatha Iyer, B. V., B.A., B.L.	Secretary, Rule Committee.
Ramaswami Naidu, B.D.V.	Sheriff of Madras.
Srinivasa Ayyar, S., B.A., B.L.	Registrar, High Court.
Jayaram Ayyar, R., M.A., B.L.	Master.
Krishnaswami Ayyar, K., Rao Sahib, M.A., B.L.	Dy. Registrar.
Gajendranath Nayudu, S. K.	Official Referee.
Kandaswami, V. T., Attorney-at-Law	1st Asst. Registrar, Original Side and Clerk of the Crown.
Krishnaswami Nayudu, V., B.A., B.L.	Asst. Registrar, Appellate Side.
Ramanujachari, V.	2nd Asst. Registrar, Original Side.
Rao Saheb T. H. Raghothama Rao	Sub-Assistant Registrar, Administrative Dept.
Gopala Aiyar, V., B.A., B.L.	Sub-Assistant Registrar, Appellate Side.
Venkatramana Naidu, M. A., M.A., B.L.	Administrator-General and Official Trustee, Madras.
Thiagarajan, V., M.A., B.L.	Official Assignee.
Govind Swaminathan, S., M.A. (Oxon.), Bar-at-Law	State Prosecutor.

Orissa Judicial Department

Ray, The Hon'ble Sri Bira Kishore, B.A., B.L.	Chief Justice.
Das, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Bachu Jagannadha, M.L.	Puisne Judge.
Panigrahi, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Lingaraj, B.A., B.L.	Do.
Narasimhan, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Ramaswamy Lakshmi, I.C.S.	Do.
Mohanty, Jagannath, M.A., B.L.	Secy. to Govt., Law Dept. and Supdt. and Remembrancer of Legal Affairs.
Nanda, Krishna Chandra, M.A., B.L.	Registrar.
Mahapatra, Chintamani, M.A., B.L.	Deputy Registrar.
Mahanty, Sarat Kumar, M.A., B.L.	Assistant Registrar.
Das, Bichitrananda, B.A., B.L.	Advocate-General.
Das, Gopal Chandra, M.A., B.L.	Govt. Advocate.
Patnaik, Birendra Mohan, LL.M. (Lond.), Bar-at-Law	Assistant Govt. Advocate.
Mohanty, Dibyasinha, B.L.	Stamp Reporter and Commissioner for Oaths and Affidavits.
Ray, Anath Bandhu, M.A., B.L.	Law Reporter.

Punjab Judicial Department

The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Eric Weston	Chief Justice.
Justice A. N. Bhandari	Puisne Judge.
Justice G. D. Khosla	Do.
Justice Harnam Singh	Do.
Justice D. Falshaw	Additional Judge.
Justice J. L. Kapur	Do.
Justice R. C. Soni	Do.
Ranjit Rai, Narang, B.A. (Hon.), LL.B., R.S.	Registrar.
Harcharan Bhandari Singh, P. C. S.	Deputy Registrar.

Uttar Pradesh Judicial Department

(HIGH COURT OF JUDICATURE AT ALLAHABAD).

Hon'ble Mr. Justice Bidhubhusan Malik, M.A. (Bar-at-Law) ..	Chief Justice.
Hon'ble Mr. Justice M. Walj-ullah, M.A., B.C.L., LL.D. (Bar-at-Law) ..	Judge.
Hon'ble Mr. Justice Ghulam Hasan, B.A., LL.B.	Do.
Hon'ble Mr. Justice O. H. Mootham, Bar-at-Law (E.D.).	Do.
Hon'ble Mr. Justice Sankar Saran, M.A. (Oxon.), Bar-at-Law	Do.
Hon'ble Mr. Justice Raghubar Dayal, M.Sc., I.C.S.	Do.
Hon'ble Mr. Justice Harish Chandra, M.Sc. (Bar-at-Law), I.C.S.	Do.
Hon'ble Mr. Justice Prakash Narain Sapru, M.A., Bar-at-Law	Do.
Hon'ble Mr. Justice Bind Basni Prasad, M.A., B.Sc., LL.B.	Do.
Hon'ble Mr. Justice Lakshmi Shankar Misra, B.A., LL.B. (Cantab.), Bar-at-Law ..	Do.
Hon'ble Mr. Justice Mubashir Husain Kidwai, Bar-at-Law	Do.
Hon'ble Mr. Justice Santdas Bulchand Chandiramani, I.C.S	Do.
Hon'ble Mr. Justice Chandra Bhan Agarwala, M.A., B.L.	Do.
Hon'ble Mr. Justice Piare Lal Bhargava, B.A., LL.B.	Do.
Hon'ble Mr. Justice Mushtaq Ahmad, B.A., LL.B.	Do.
Hon'ble Mr. Justice Manu Lal Chuni Lal Desai, B.A. (Cantab.), I.C.S.	Do.
Hon'ble Mr. Justice Vashistha Bhargava, I.C.S.	Do.
Hon'ble Mr. Justice Brij Mohan Lal, B.A., LL.B.	Do.
B. N. Nigam	Registrar.
Kailash Prasad Mathur, M.A., LL.B.	Joint Registrar.
Bani Bilas Misra, B.A., LL.B.	Deputy Registrar.
Kripa Shankar Varma, B.A., LL.B.	Deputy Registrar.
Girdhari Krishna Narain	Deputy Registrar.
Shambhu Nath Srivastava, B.A.	Assistant Registrar.
Mohammad Nasirullah Beg, Bar-at-Law	Govt. Advocate, Lucknow Bench.
Dr. M. H. Faruqi, M.A., LL.B. (Ph.D.), Bar-at-Law	Additional Govt. Advocate.
Kanhaiya Lal Misra, B.A. (Hons.), LL.B.	Govt. Advocate (Alld. Bench).
Prithwi Nath Chaudhri, B.A., LL.B.	Dy. Govt. Advocate.
Debi Prasad Uniyal, M.A., LL.B...	Assistant Government Advocate.
C. S. Saran, Bar-at-Law	Law Reporter.
Iftikhar Husain, B.Sc., LL.B.	Law Reporter, Lucknow Bench.
J. C. Mukerji, B.A., LL.B...	Junior Law Reporter.
J. K. Srivastava, B.A., LL.B.	Administrator-General & Official Trustee;

West Bengal Judicial Department

Harris, The Hon'ble Sir Arthur Trevor, Barrister-at-Law	Chief Justice.
Sen, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Amarendra Nath, Barrister-at-Law	Judge.
Roxburgh, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice T. J. Y., C.I.E., I.C.S., Barrister-at-Law.	Do.
Chakravartti, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Phani Bhusan, M.A., B.L. (*on deputation*).	Puisne Judge;
Das, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Gopendra Nath, M.A., B.L.	Do.
Mookerjee, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Rama Prasad, M.A., B.L.	Do.
Banerjee, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Sambhunath, Barrister-at-Law	Do.
Chunder, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Kamal Chunder, B.A. (Cal.), M.A. (Oxon.), I.C.S., Barrister-at-Law	Do.
Das Gupta, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Kulada Charan, M.A., I.C.S., Barrister-at-Law	Do.
Lahiri, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Surajit Chandra, M.A., B.L.	Do.
Das Gupta, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Subodh Ranjan, Barrister-at-Law	Do.
Mukharji, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Prasanta Bihari, Barrister-at-Law ..	Do.
Sarkar, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Amal Kumar, Barrister-at-Law	Do.
Mitter, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Jyoti Prakash, B.A. (Oxon.), Barrister-at-Law	Do.
Guha, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Braja Kanta, I.C.S.	Do.
Bose, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Himanshu Kumar, Barrister-at-Law	Do.
Bachwat, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice R. S., Barrister-at-Law	Do.
Sinha, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Deep Narayan, Barrister-at-Law	Do.
Mookerji, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Paresh Nath, M.A., B.L...	Do.

LAWS OF 1950

1. The Rehabilitation Finance Administration (Amendment) Act.—In 1948, the Rehabilitation Finance Administration Act was passed. Under the Act, the Rehabilitation Finance Administration is established with a view to helping displaced persons to rehabilitate by granting loans to them. The object of this Act of 1950 is to increase the number of official and non-official members of the Rehabilitation Finance Administration in order to secure wider representation for interests concerned and to enable the Administration to grant loans to business concerns in which a substantial number of displaced persons are interested. The Act of 1948 is extended to the Acceding States, except the State of Jammu and Kashmir. It also makes provision for efficient arrangements regarding recruitment of staff and custody of funds of the Administration.

2. The Patents and Designs (Extention of Time) Act.—This Act affords relief to such displaced persons, as were not able to complete certain proceedings, initiated by them under the Indian Patents and Designs Act 1911, on account of civil disturbances that took place prior and subsequent to the partition of the country in August 1947. It empowers the Controller of patents and Designs to extend the time limits.

3. The Insolvency Law (Amendment) Act.—This Act removes a few defects and anomalies in the Presidency towns insolvency Act (1909) and the Provincial Insolvency Act (1920). Sections 2 and 6 lay down that a creditor may present an insolvency petition against a debtor on the day on which the Court reopens, if the period of three months, laid down by the Act, expires during a Court Vacation. Sections 3, 4 and 5 bring provisions of the Act 1909 into line with the provisions of the Act 1920. Section 7 gives option to the court in the matter of annulment of order of adjudication, in cases where debtor fails to apply for discharge, within the prescribed period.

4. The Preventive Detention Act.—As a result of the commencement of the Constitution of India, on the 26th January 1950, the Public Security Acts, passed by the various provincial legislatures, were declared void by respective High Courts, which held that the Acts were inconsistent with the provisions of the Constitution with respect to Fundamental Rights. As such, detention without trial under those Acts became illegal. The various State Governments, however, felt a pressing need for a similar measure in order to control the mischievous element in society. Hence the provisional Parliament passed this Act.

The Act extends to the whole of India. But in the State of Jammu and Kashmir, it will apply only, for reasons connected with defence, foreign affairs or the security of India. It shall cease to have effect on the 1st April 1951.

S. 3 empowers the Central or the State Government to detain any person, with a view to preventing him from acting in any manner prejudicial to (*i*) the defence of India, the relations of India with foreign powers, or the security of India, or (*ii*) the security of the State or the maintenance of public order, or (*iii*) the maintenance of supplies and services essential to the community. A foreigner, may also be detained with a view to regulating his continued presence in India or with a view to making arrangements for his expulsion from India. The power conferred by this section may be exercised by a District Magistrate or a Sub-Divisional Magistrate or the Commissioner of Police.

S. 7 lays down that the grounds of the order of detention must be communicated to the persons detained. He must also be afforded the earliest opportunity of making a representation against that order. However it is not obligatory on the authority to disclose facts which it considers to be against the public interest to disclose.

S. 8 lays down provisions for the constitution of Advisory Boards for the purposes of this Act. Every such Board shall consist of two persons who are, or have been or are qualified to be appointed as, judges of a High Court.

S. 9. All the papers relevant to the detention of a person detained will be submitted to such a Board, within six weeks from the date of detention.

Sections 10 and 11 lay down the procedure to be followed by such Boards and Confirmation of the Order of detention.

S. 12 under this section, it is provided that a person, detained with a view to preventing him from acting in any manner prejudicial to (*a*) the defence of India or (*b*) the security of a State or the maintenance of public Order, may be detained without referring his case to the Advisory Board. Such detention however cannot be for a period exceeding one year. But the case of such a person shall, within a period of six months from the date of his detention be reviewed.

S. 13 lays down that a detention order may be revoked. However, it will not be a bar for making a fresh detention Order.

S. 14 prohibits disclousure of grounds of detention, and lays down that no court shall be entitled to require any public officer to produce before it or to disclose the substance of any such communication, etc. Such a disclosure is made an offence punishable with imprisonment for a term which may extend to one year. (This section was declared *ultra vires*, by the Supreme Court of India—Gopalan's case and was subsequently deleted by the Parliament).

5. The Indian Tariff (Amendment) Act.—The Act was passed to give effect to certain recommendations made in the Report of the Tariff Board, on (*i*) the Starch Industry and (*ii*) the Cotton Textile Machinery Industry. It raises the protective duty from 18 per cent to 20 per cent and continues the protection given to the Starch Industry till March 1952. It also raises the duty on farina and imposes protective duty on sago flour and certain cotton textile machinery and parts.

6. The Imports and Exports (Control) Amendment Act.—This Act prolongs the life of the Imports and Exports Act until 31st March 1955, because of the foreign exchange position. Section 4A of the Act is replaced by another Section. It confers powers on the Central Government to levy any fee in respect of an application for a licence.

7. High Courts (Seals) Act.—This Act provides for the use of a seal by every High Court in States in Part A and Part B of the First Schedule, and by a Court of Judicial Commissioner. Sec. 2 lays down that the seal will bear a device and impression of the Asoka Capital, with the following inscriptions (*i*) THE SEAL OF THE HIGH COURT, etc., and (*ii*) " Satyameva Jayate " in Devanagari script.

8. The Control and Shipping (Amendment) Act.—The Act extends the life of the Control and Shipping Act for a further period of two years, *i.e.*, till the 31st March 1952.

9. The Indian Tea Control (Amendment) Act.—This Act continues the Indian Tea Control Act, 1938 upto 31st March 1955, with a view to giving recognition to the International Tea Agreement. Various sections of the old Act are amended and a few are omitted.

10. The Immigrants (Expulsion From Assam) Act.—Economy of Assam was seriously disturbed on account of immigration of a very large number of East Bengal residents into Assam. It also gave rise to problems of law and order. The Act confers necessary powers on the Government of India to deal with the situation.

S. 2 empowers the Central Government to direct any person who is immigrant to Assam to remove himself from India or Assam within such time and by such route as may be specified. This however will not be applicable to those persons who on account of civil disturbances, left Pakistan and have been subsequently residing in Assam.

S. 3 authorises delegation of the power and duties conferred by section 2, to any officer or the Government of Assam. The authority to whom the power is delegated is entitled by virtue of section 4, to take such steps as may be necessary for the effective exercise of that power.

S. 5 lays down penalty for contravening any such order or for helping the contravention of the same. The Penalty may extend to imprisonment for three years and fine.

11. The Indian Railways (Amendment) Act.—The Act extends the duration of the power of the Central Government to direct a Railway Administration to give special facilities for the transport of any goods, when it is necessary in the public interest to do so. Under the old Act, the power was to expire on the 31st March 1950.

S. 2 of the Act inserts a new Section in the Indian Railways Act, 1890. The new Section is numbered as 27A. It empowers the Central Government to give necessary directions for special facilities for the transport of such goods as may be specified. Any such order shall cease to have effect after the expiry of six months from the date thereof, but it may be renewed from time to time.

12. Emblems and Names (Prevention of Improper Use) Act.—The Act prevents improper use of certain emblems and names. The General Assembly of the U.N.O. recommended in 1946 that the member Nations should take necessary steps to prevent the use without proper authority of the emblem, the official seal and the name of the U.N.O. Similar request was also made by the World Health Organisation for similar purposes. The Act also prevents the use in India and abroad of the Indian National Flag. The Act extends to the whole of India and is applicable to citizens of India outside India.

S. 2 defines an " emblem."

S. 3 prohibits the use of such an emblem or a name or any colourable imitation thereof without the previous permission of the Central Government or any officer authorised in that behalf.

S. 4 lays down rules as regards prohibition of registration of certain companies, bearing a name or an emblem specified. The penalty for contravening the provisions of this Act may extend to fine of five hundred rupees.

S. 6 lays down that previous sanction of the Central Government is required for instituting a prosecution under this Act.

The schedule contains a list of the emblem names and designs. It is as follows :—

(1) the name, emblem or official seal of the United Nations Organization.
(2) The name, emblem or official seal of the World Health Organisation.
(3) The Indian National Flag.
(4) The Official seal or emblem of the Government of India or of any State or any other insignia or coat-of-arms used by any such Government or by a Department of any such Government.

13. Delhi Road Transport Authority Act.—The Government of India took over the transport service operated by G.N.I.T. in Delhi. The Standing Finance Committee recommended the creation of a statutory Transport Board. The Act creates such an authority with the object of providing an efficient, adequate, economical and properly co-ordinated system of road transport services for passengers and goods in the State of Delhi.

S. 4 lays down the constitution of the authority. It consists of one member elected by the Delhi Municipal Committee, one by the Delhi

District Board, one non-official expert in transport, nominated by the Central Government, three officials and the Chief Commissioner of Delhi. The Chairman will be nominated by the Central Government.

S. 5 lays down term of office of an elected member and a nominated member.

S. 6. A lunatic, an insolvent or a person who has been convicted of an offence involving moral turpitude or one interested in any contract with the Authority or having any financial interest in any other road transport undertaking, cannot be a member of the Authority.

S. 7. Members of the Authority can be removed by the Central Government

Sections 8, 9 and 10 lay down rules for resignation, temporary absence of any member, etc.

S. 11. The Authority may associate with itself any persons whose assistance or advice it may desire in carrying any of the provisions of the Act.

S. 12. Rules about meetings of the Authority are laid down.

S. 13. All orders and decisions of the Authority shall be authenticated according to rules made in this behalf.

S. 14. Elected members and nominated non-officials are entitled to receive allowances as may be prescribed.

S. 15. The Authority shall have a General Manager and a Chief Accounts Officer. These officers shall be appointed by the Central Government.

S. 16. The General Manager shall be the Chief Executive Officer, and shall have the right of being present at any meeting of the Authority. The Chief Accounts Officer shall have the right to record his views on every proposal involving expenditure.

S. 17. Persons having interest in any contract by or on behalf of the Authority cannot be its servants.

S 18. An Advisory Council consisting of not more than fifteen members will be constituted to advise the Authority.

S. 19. The authority has the duty of providing a system of road transport services for passengers and goods in the State of Delhi and in any extended area.

S. 20. The Authority has the power to operate road transport services, to provide for any ancillary service, to provide for its employees suitable conditions of service, etc. It can manufacture, purchase, maintain and repair rolling stock, vehicles, etc. It can acquire and hold such property as may be necessary for any of the purposes of the Authority. It can prepare schemes for the acquisition of the whole or any part of any undertaking of any other person to the extent to which the activities thereof consist of the operation of road transport services in the State of Delhi. It can purchase or take on lease any land and erect buildings as may be necessary. It can authorise disposal of scrap vehicles. It can enter into all such contracts as may be necessary, determine the fares and freights for the carriage of passengers and goods, dispose of any assets of which the total valuation is less than fifty thousand rupees, purchase vehicles, garages, depots, workshops, etc. and do all other things to facilitate the proper carrying on the business of the Authority. For certain purposes not directly or indirectly connected with the duties of the Authority, previous sanction of the Central Government is necessary.

S. 21. The Authority may delegate to its General Manager its duties and powers.

S. 22. The Authority may prepare schemes with a view to nationalising and developing road transport services in the State of Delhi. Such Schemes may make provision for the details.

S. 23. Such a scheme shall be submitted to the Advisory Council and on its opinion being received, the scheme may be sanctioned. If it is a scheme involving a capital expenditure exceeding fifty thousand rupees, previous approval of the Central Government is necessary.

S. 24. The operation of the road transport services may be extended to areas within another State.

S. 25. The Authority has the power to alter or extend a scheme.

S. 26. Passes may be issued to the employees of the Authority.

S. 27. Provision may be made for refund in respect of unused tickets.

S. 28. Unclaimed articles and property may be disposed of in any manner laid down by the regulation made in that behalf.

S. 29. The Authority must act on business principles.

S. 30. The obligations of the Central Government with respect to the matters to which the Act applies, shall be the obligations of the Authority.

S. 31. Non-recurring expenditure incurred by the Central Government upto the date of the establishment of the Authority shall be the Capital of the Authority. Additional Capital may be provided by the Central Government or the Authority may be authorized to borrow.

S. 32. All property acquired for the purposes of the Act shall vest in the Authority.

S. 33. The fund of the Authority shall be deposited in th Reserve Bank of India or invested in approved securities.

S. 34. The Authority shall pay interest to the Central Government on the Capital.

S. 35. Provision for depreciation and reserve funds must also be made.

S. 36. The Authority has the power to spend on objects authorized under the Act.

S. 37. The budget of the Authority must be presented to the Central Government by the 31st of October in each year, for approval. Expenditure shall be legal, only if it is approved by the Central Government.

S. 38. Accounts of the Authority shall be audited by the Comptroller and Auditor-General of India. A copy of the report of the audit shall be forwarded to the Cental Government and the report shall be laid before Parliament.

S. 39. The Central Government has the right to give directions to the Authority.

S. 40. The Authority must submit to the Central Government returns, Statistics, etc.

S. 41. The Central Government has the power to order inquiries into all or any of the activities of the Authority.

S. 42. If necessary the Central Government may authorise any person to take over from the Authority a part of the undertaking. Expenses incurred for this, shall be paid from the fund of the Authority.

S. 43. The Central Government may supersede the Authority, if such a step is deemed necessary. As a result of such a notification all the members of the Authority shall vacate office, and the powers of the Authority shall be exercised by such person as may be directed by the Central Government.

S. 44. The report of any action taken either under section 42 or 43 will be presented to Parliament.

S. 45. Land can be acquired compulsorily for the carrying out any of the purposes of this Act.

S. 46. When land is compulsorily acquired compensation will be paid to the person concerned. The amount of compensation may be fixed by an agreement or determined by an arbitral tribunal. An appeal shall lie to the District Judge against the decision of the tribunal and the order of the District Judge shall be final.

S. 47. This section makes provision for the application of certain provisions of the Motor Vehicles Act 1939 or any rules made thereunder to vehicles and employees of the Authority.

S. 48. Provision is made as to third party risks.

S. 49. Vehicles of the Authority may be exempted from payment of certain charges.

S. 50. Officers of the Authority have the power to enter upon any land or premises between sunrise and sunset, with the previous permission of the district Magistrate, for the purposes of the carrying out any work of the Authority. At other times he must secure permission in writing of the owner of the premises.

S. 51. Members, officers and servants of the Authority shall be deemed to be public servants, within the meaning of section 21 of the Indian Penal Code.

S. 52. The Central Government has the power to make rules in order to give effect to the provisions of this Act.

S. 53. The Authority has the power to make regulations with the previous sanction of the Central Government.

S. 54. Provision may be made by the Central Government for punishment in case of breach of any regulation made by the Authority.

14. The Criminal Law Amendment Act.—This Act repeals the Criminal Law Amendment Ordinance 1950 and introduces a new section (9A) in the Criminal Law Amendment Ordinance 1944. Under this section some of the difficulties that were created in the attachment of property of a criminal, due to partition of India are removed. Under the Criminal Law Amendment Ordinance, district Judges are empowered to attach and freeze, on the application of the State Government concerned, any moneys or other property believed to have been procured by a person suspected to have committed any offence. This power is vested in the district Judge within the local limits of whose jurisdiction the person concerned ordinarily resides. But if the order of attachment was made a district judge, now exercising jurisdiction in Pakistan and the attached property is in India, the powers conferred by the ordinance cannot be exercised by any authority in India. Hence the amendment. Under the amended ordinance the order of attachment shall be deemed to be an order of the district judge within the limits of whose jurisdiction, the court taking cognizance of the scheduled offence is situated.

15. The Judicial Commissioners' Courts (Declaration As High Courts) Act.—Article 241 (1) of the Constitution provides for declaration of any court in Part C States to be a high court for any purposes of the constitution. In absence of such a declaration no appeal can lie to the Supreme Court from the decisions of Judicial Commissioners Courts. The Act makes the necessary provision. It replaces an earlier ordinance on the same subject.

S. 3. Every Court in a Part C State, is a High Court for the purposes of articles 132,133 and 134.

S. 4. Appeals to the Supreme Court shall lie even against the judgment of a single judge.

S. 5. An appeal shall lie to the Supreme Court, whether the judgment, decree or final order was passed before or after the commencement of the Constitution.

S. 6. Certain exceptions and modifications are made in some of the articles of the constitution in their application to the Courts in Part C States.

16. The Prevention of Corruption (Amendment) Act.—S. 5 of the original Act defines the offences of criminal misconduct in the discharge of official duty and specifies the procedure for the trial and punishment of such offences. This section was to be inoperative after 10th March 1950. This amending Act extends its life by a period of two years by substituting the words 'five years' instead of 'three years' in Section 1.

17. The Durgah Khawaja Saheb (Emergency Provisions) Act.—This Act replaces an ordinance on the same matter, and provides for the management of the Durgah.

S. 3. An Administrator may be appointed by the Central Government for the administration and control of the Durgah Endowment. This Administrator shall replace the Committtee exercising these functions. The Sajjadanashin shall also cease to have any rights over the lands comprised in the Jagirdari villages.

S. 4. The Administrator has the power to appoint Mutawali and Advisory Committee of Muslims and determine their powers.

S. 5. In case of dispute between the Administrator and the Mutawali and others, on any secular topic, the matter will be referred to the Chief Commissioner, whose decision shall be final. No suit shall lie in any court about this matter.

S. 6. The Administrator has the power to solicit or receive on behalf of the Durgah any *Nazars* or offerings from any person. All such *Nazars* shall be deemed to be part of the Durgah Endowment.

S. 7. The Administrator shall exercise all power and discharge all duties of the Committee under the Act.

S. 8. No suit can lie against the Administrator for any action taken in good faith.

18. The Special Criminal Courts (Jurisdiction) Act.—The Special Criminal Courts (Jurisdiction) Ordinance VII of 1950 was promulgated to enable the Special Courts to try offences relating to matters enumerated in the Federal Legislative list. This Act replaces the Ordinance with necessary changes consequent on the commencement of the Constitution.

S. 3. The Special Courts shall have the power to try offences with respect to matters in the Union List.

S. 4. The Central Government is empowered to add any other State law, to the Schedule to the Act.

19. The Parliament (Prevention of Disqualification) Act.—Doubts were expressed as to whether the office of a Ministry of State or a Deputy Minister is an office of profit under article 102 of the Constitution. If it had been held in the affirmative the holders of such offices would have been disqualified for membership of the Parliament. This Act removes that disqualification.

S. 2. A person shall not be disqualified for being a member of Parliament by reason only of the fact that he holds any of the following offices of profit under the Government of India or the Government of any State, namely an office of a Minister of State or a Deputy Minister or a Parliamentary Secretary or Parliamentary Under-Secretary.

20. Banking Companies (Amendment) Act.—This Act replaces the Banking Companies (Amendment) Ordinance 1949. It contains special provisions for the speedy disposal of winding up proceedings of banking Companies in the interest of creditors and public morality. It also facilitates quick amalgamation between banking companies and empowers the Reserve Bank to control opening of branches by Indian Banks in foreign countries.

S. 6. No banking Company can open new branches or change the place of business without the prior permission in writing of the Reserve Bank.

S. 8. It introduces a new section No. 44A in the Banking Companies Act. Amalgamation of two banking companies is allowed only when a resolution to that effect is passed separately by the shareholders of each company. It must be further approved by a resolution passed by a majority in number representing two-thirds in value of the shareholders of each Company. Dissenting shareholders will be entitled to claim from the banking Company the value of their shares as determined by the Reserve Bank. The scheme of amalgamation must be sanctioned by the Reserve Bank. A copy of the order sanctioning the scheme shall be transmitted to the Registrar.

S. 9. It substitutes a new section in place of the old section 45. It prohibits any compromise or arrangement between banking Company and creditors, unless certified by the Reserve Bank.

S. 10. Adds a new part after Part III and the part is called Part III-A. It contains special provisions for speedy disposal of winding up proceedings. New Sections from 45A to 45K are incorporated. The court is authorised to decide all claims against the banking Companies. There is a right of appeal. Some of the offences, committed by persons taking part in the formation or promotion of a banking Company which is being wound up can be tried summarily. Such offences must be tried by a judge other than the one dealing with the winding up proceedings. The Reserve Bank is authorised to examine the records of a Company, if an official liquidator seeks its advice on the matters of winding up. District Magistrates are required to assist any liquidator in taking charge of the property of a Company which is being wound up. The Court has power to make rules concerning the mode of proceeding and all other relevant questions.

21. The Indian Tariff (Second Amendment) Act.—The Act continues protection to certain industries and takes away protection of certain other industries on the advice of the Tariff Board. The protection given to (*a*) Phosphates and Phosphoric acid and (*b*) steel belt lacing is discontinued from 31st March 1950.

22. The Capital Issues (Continuance of Control) Amendment Act.—The Act continues in force upto 31st March 1952, the provisions of the Capital Issues (Continuance of Control) Act, 1947 and extends the scope of the Act to all territories of India which are under the legislative jurisdiction of Parliament. The Act has got only three sections.

23. The Appropriation (Railways) Act.—Under the Constitution of India, no tax can be levied nor even a single anna be spent without the authority of law. In pursuance of article 114 (1) the Bill was introduced for the appropriation out of the Consolidated Fund of India of the moneys required to meet the grants made by Parliament for expenditure of the Central Government Railways for 1950-51. The total amount authorised by the Act is Rs. 2,78,64,64,000.

24. The Appropriation Act.—The Act authorises the appropriation out of the Consolidated Fund of India of the moneys required to meet expenditure charged on the Consolidated Fund and the grants made by Parliament for expenditure of the Central Government excluding Railways for 1950-51. The total amount authorised is Rs. 19,24,94,34,000 out of this the sum of Rs. 15,32,14,33,000 is charged on the Consolidated Fund of India and the amount of Rs. 3,92,80,01,000 was voted by Parliament.

25. The Finance Act.—The Act gives effect to the financial proposals of the Government of India for the financial year 1950-51. It makes three minor amendments in the Indian-Income-Tax Act. Rates of import duty on motor vehicles and spare parts and accessories are altered. There are a few additions to the existing custom duties. Export duties on hessian and raw cotton are enhanced and such duties are levied on mustard oil, blackpepper and steel. The act extends the Indian Post Office Act, 1898 to the whole of India and also provides for the extension of the Indian Income Tax Act, 1922, the Indian Tariff Act 1934, the Sea Customs Act, 1878, the Land Customs Act, 1924 and the Central Excises and Salt Act 1944, to the whole of India except Kashmir.

S. 2. Lays down rates of Income Tax and Super tax.

S. 3. Introduces amendments in the Indian Income Tax Act.

S. 4. Alters duties on Customs as regards certain things.

S. 5. Levys additional customs duties.

S. 6. Substitutes revenue duties in place of protective duties.

S. 7 alters certain export duties and imposes certain other export duties.

S. 8 alters certain Central Excise duties.

S. 9. Discontinues Salt duty.

S. 10. Provides for inland postage rates.

S. 11. Extends certain Central Acts to certain Part B States. There are four Schedules to the Act.

26. The Drugs (Control) Act.—The Act replaces the Central Ordinance promulgated on 3-10-49 to ensure that certain essential imported drugs and medicines were sold at reasonable prices.

S. 4 empowers the Chief Commissioner to fix the price of any drugs, the maximum quantity which may be possessed by a dealer, etc.

S. 5. Dealers are prohibited from selling or possessing more quantity than authorised.

S. 6. Restrictions may also be imposed on the quantity of drugs possessed by any person.

S. 7. This section imposes a duty on persons to declare the stock of drugs in possession.

Sections 8, 9 and 10. A dealer must not refuse to sell the drugs in his possession. He must give cash memos, at the time of the sale and must exhibit a price list of the drugs. The dealer must not efface or alter any label or mark affixed to a drug.

S. 11. A dealer must state prices separately on composite offer.

S. 12. The Chief Commissioner may by order prohibit the disposal of any drugs or regulate the sale of the same.

S. 13. It lays down penalties for contravention of the provisions of the Act.

S. 14. Provides for offences committed by Corporations.

Ss. 15 and 16 lay down rules for procedure and for search and seizure.

S. 17. The Central Government has power to make rules.

27. The Government Premises (Eviction) Act.—This Act is similar to the Delhi Premises (Requisition and Eviction) Act 1947. In big cities like Bombay and Calcutta there were many cases of unauthorised occupation of accommodation requisitioned or hired or owned by Government. Eviction by resort to the Civil Court did not yield satisfactory results. Hence legislation was needed.

S. 3. Competent authority as defined in the Act, is empowered to order a person, unauthorizedly occupying any premises to vacate within fifteen days of the date of service of the notice. The authority may use force for evicting such a person if he fails to comply with the order.

S. 4. Damages may be claimed from such a person and may be recovered as arrears of land revenue.

S. 5. Provides for appeals.

S. 6. Jurisdiction of Civil Courts is taken away in respect of any action under this Act.

S. 7. Provides protection in respect of anything done in good faith.

S. 8. The Central Government may delegate its power under this Act to any officer.

S. 9. Penalty extending to Rs. 1,000 is prescribed for violation of any rule under this Act.

28. The Sholapur Spinning and Weaving Company (Emergency Provision) Act.—The Sholapur Spinning and Weaving Co. Ltd. was closed down in August 1949. The Government of Bombay appointed Inspectors under the Indian Companies Act to report upon the closure. The report indicated that the closure was due to persistent mismanagement by the Board of Directors and the Managing Agents. The Government of India, on the recommendation of the Government of Bombay promulgated an ordinance on the 9th January 1950. This Act replaces the ordinance and validates all action taken under it.

S. 3. The Central Government has the power of appointing Directors of the Company by a notified order.

S. 4. As a result of such an order, the persons holding office as directors shall be deemed to vacate their offices, any Contract of management between the Company and any managing Agent, shall be terminated, and the new directors shall be entitled to take all such steps as are necessary for taking over the management.

S. 5. The Directors have the power to choose one of their members to be the Chairman, to appoint Managing Agents, to raise funds, to carry out necessary repairs of the property, and to employ such persons as may be necessary. They may cancel, with the previous sanction of the Central Government any contract or agreement already entered into before the notification of the order.

S. 6. The persons holding office as directors, shall make a detailed statement of affairs of the Company to the new Directors.

S. 8. The new directors have the power of instituting proceedings against past directors and other persons for damages.

S. 9. Any person who wilfully destroys or fails to deliver to the directors books of accounts etc., shall be punishable with imprisonment or with fine or with both.

S. 10. Casual vacancies in the body of the directors shall be filled by the Central Government.

S. 11. No one will be entitled to compensation for termination of any contract with the Company.

S. 12. The Central Government may cancel the appointment of directors made under this Act. The outgoing directors shall call a meeting of the shareholders for the purpose of electing a new body of directors.

S. 13. The companies Act shall continue to apply to the Sholapur Company subject to the following provisions (*a*) it shall not be lawful for the shareholders of the Company or any other person to nominate or appoint any person to be a director of the Company, (*b*) no resolution passed at the meetings of shareholders will be given effect to unless approved by the Central Government, (*c*) the Central Government alone can sanction the winding up proceedings of the Company.

S. 14. Provisions of this Act shall have effect notwithstanding anything inconsistent therewith contained in any other law.

S. 15. Directors of the Company shall be deemed to be public servants.

S. 16. The Central Government may direct that the powers under this Act may be exercised by the Government of Bombay.

S. 17. No suit shall lie against any director or the Government in respect of anything which is done in good faith.

S. 18. The Central Government has the power to make rules.

S. 19. Repeals the Sholapur Spinning and Weaving Company (Emergency Provisions) Ordinance 1950.

29. The Transfer of Prisoners Act.—There was no provision in the Prisoners' Act 1900 for the transfer of prisoners from prisons in Parts A, C, D to those in Part B States and *vice versa*. The Act provides legal sanction for such transfers.

S. 3. Where any person is confined in a prison in a State, the Government of that State may with the consent of the Government of any other State provide for the removal from one prison to any prison in the other State.

S. 4. Amends section 29 of the Prisoners Act.

30. The Part C States (Laws) Act.—Out of the ten States in Part C of the First Schedule to the Constitution, only three namely Ajmer, Coorg and Delhi have been provided with easy means of legislation. Provision was made by the Merged States (Law) Act for four more States, namely, Bhopal, Bilaspur, Himachal Pradesh and Kutch. This Act makes provision for the remaining three States, namely Manipur, Tripura and Vindhya Pradesh and other necessary changes.

S. 2. Empowers the Central Government to extend enactment to Part 'C' States.

S. 3. Extends the Acts and Ordinances specified in the Schedule to the Merged States (Laws) Act, 1949, to Tripura and Vindhya Pradesh. They also extend to Manipur, subject to certain restriction, particularly about the Indian Penal Code. The Schedule at the end of the Act gives a list of Acts that shall not extend to Manipur.

31. The Administration of Evacuee Property Act.—The Act makes provision for the administration of the property of evacuees a class of persons that came into existence on account of partition of India in 1947.

S. 2 lays down definitions of various terms.

Evacuee is defined as 'a person who has left on or after 1st March 1947 any place in a State for any place outside India, or who is resident in any place now forming part of Pakistan and who is unable to manage his property in India or who has after the 14th day of August 1947 obtained otherwise by way of purchase or exchange any property which is treated as evacuee property under any law for the time being in force in Pakistan, or who has acquired any property which is deemed to be abandoned property according to law in Pakistan.

Chapter II of the Act provides for the vesting of the evacuee property in the Custodians.

Ss. 5 and 6 lay down provisions for appointment of Custodian-General and Deputy and Assistant Custodian Generals and Custodians and Deputy Custodians.

S. 7. The Custodian may declare any property as evacuee property if in his opinion it becomes so within the meaning of this Act. Such an order will be issued after giving notice to the person concerned.

S. 8. Property declared as evacuee property shall be deemed to be vested in the Custodian for the State.

S. 9. The Custodian has the necessary power to take possession of evacuee property vested in him, from any person who refuses to surrender the property to him.

S. 10. The Custodian may take such steps as are necessary for the purpose of securing the evacuee property. He may carry on the business, appoint a Manager or require any person to furnish such returns as are necessary, search any building or place where he has reason to believe that evacuee property or a document is kept, institute or defend legal proceedings, raise loans on the security of the evacuee property, make payments to the members of the family of the evacuee and transfer the property. For sale of the property, the Custodian must secure the prior permission of the Custodian-General.

S. 11 lays down special provisions with respect to certain trust properties.

S. 12. The Custodian may vary or cancel leases or allotments of evacuee property.

S. 13. Payment made to the Custodian means valid discharge from the debts.

S. 14. Expenditure incurred by the Custodian shall be a charge on the property concerned and may be met or recouped by him out of the income of the property.

S. 15. The Custodian shall maintain accounts.

S. 16. Procedure for restoration of property to evacuee is laid down.

Ss. 17 and 18. These sections form Chapter III and lay down consequences of vesting of the property in the Custodian. Such property will be exempt from attachment and the occupancy or tenancy rights will not be extinguished. Chapter IV deals with the property of intending evacuees.

S. 19. Procedure for declaring a person as "Intending evacuee" is laid down.

S. 20. An intending evacuee cannot transfer his property without the previous approval of the 'Custodian'.

S. 21. The Custodian can inspect the books of account or prohibit the transfer to Pakistan of any sum of money etc. of intending evacuee.

S. 22. In certain cases the property of intending evacuee may be declared as evacuee property.

S. 23. If an intending evacuee acquires in Pakistan evacuee or abandoned property for inadequate consideration, he must make good the deficiency in India.

Chapter V consisting of sections 24 to 28 makes provision for appeals, review and revision.

Sections 29 to 39 form Chapter VI and provide for penalties and procedure.

S. 40. Transfer of his property by an evacuee after the 14th of August 1947 can be valid unless confirmed by the Custodian. The section lays down procedure for getting permission of the Custodian.

S. 41. Registering officers shall not register certain documents with respect to such property without the production of a certificate from the Custodian.

S. 42. It is obligatory for every person in possession of evacuee property to inform the Custodian about the same.

S. 43. Death of an evacuee will not affect vesting of property in Custodian.

S. 44. The Custodian-General, the Custodian shall be public servants within the meaning of section 21 of I.P.C.

S. 45. In certain respects, the Custodian has the same powers as a Civil Court, for the purposes of holding inquiry.

S. 46. Civil Courts cannot entertain a suit to decide whether certain property is evacuee property or not or whether a person is an intending evacuee or not etc.

S. 47. The Custodian-General or the Custodian get legal protection for action taken in good faith.

S. 48. Any sum due to the State Government or to the Custodian can be recovered as if it were an arrear of land revenue.

S. 49. All records under this Act are public documents.

S. 50. Civil Courts shall give notice to the Custodian when a question relating to the property of an evacuee is involved.

S. 51 lays down rules as regards fees payable to the Custodian.

Ss. 52 to 56 empower the Central or the State Government as the case may be to make rules under this Act.

S. 57 amends sub-section (3) of Section 54 of the Indian Income Tax Act for the purposes of this Act.

32. The Indian Patents and Designs (Amendment) Act.—The Indian Patents and Designs Act 1911 was enacted when India had not progressed industrially. The progress of industrial development necessitated amendment of that Act. The Patents Inquiry Committee appointed by the Government of India made recommendations as regards the amendments.

Ss. 2, 3, 4 amend sections 1 and 2 of the old Act and substitute the term 'India' for the term 'States' in the old Act.

S. 5 inserts a new section 2A and provides for rules of construction in application of the Act to Part B States.

S. 6 substitutes new sections 22, 23 and 23A, 23B, 23C, 23D, 23E, 23F and 23G for Sections 22, 23 and 23A of the old Act.

S. 7 amends section 75 of the old Act.

33. The Opium and Revenue Laws (Extension of Application) Act.—This Act consists of 4 sections and one Schedule. It extends some laws such as the Opium Act, the Revenue Recovery Act etc. to the rest of India excluding the State of Jammu and Kashmir. Such an extention was necessary for giving effect to the Budget proposals.

34. The Foreign Exchange Regulation (Amendment) Act.—Preferential treatment was accorded to the United Kingdom Companies and individuals. Under section 18 of the Foreign Exchange Regulation Act 1947. This Act takes away the preferential treatment and treats Indian and United Kingdom Commercial interests on the same level. The Act has 6 sections in all. All those sections introduced the necessary amendments.

35. The Repealing and Amending Act.—The Act consists of 4 sections and two Schedules. It is one of the Acts that are necessary for repealing and amending certain Acts in view of the other enactments passed by the Legislature. It repeals as many as 73 Acts and amends many others.

36. The Nawab Salarjung Bahadur (Administration of Assets) Act.—This Act replaces the corresponding ordinance issued on the 12th November 1949 and enables the Salar Jung Estate Committee to administer effectively the properties of the late Nawabs outside the State.

S. 3. All the assets of the Nawab shall vest in the Committee.

S. 4. The Committee has the power to take necessary measures for the purposes of administering and managing the estate.

S. 5. Any payment made to the Committee shall be a valid discharge.

S. 6. No property can be transferred without the consent of the Committee.

S. 7. The Schedule to the Act may be amended by the Central Government.

S. 8. No suit can be instituted by any person other than the Committee without the consent of the Central Government.

S. 9. The Committee get legal protection for acts done in good faith.

S. 10. The Central Government has the power to make rules.

The Schedule gives details of the assets of the late Nawab Salar Jang Bahadur.

37. The Inland Steam Vessels (Amendment) Act.—This Act amends the Inland Steam Vessels Act 1917. It substitutes the words "State Government" for "Central Government" and omits the proviso to section 70 of the Act.

38. The Indian Tariff (Third Amendment) Act.—This Act amends the First Schedule to the Indian Tariff Act 1934 and substitutes a few old items and introduces a few new ones in the Schedule.

39. The Appropriation (No. 2) Act.—This Act authorises payment and appropriation of certain sums, in addition to earlier sums authorised by the Act XXIV 1950. The sum authorised is Rs. 4,38,36,000. The Schedule to the Act mentions the purposes for which the sum is authorised.

40. The Army and Air Force (Disposal of Private Property) Act.—This Act brings together in one separate statute the various existing provisions regarding the disposal of private property, incorporated in Army and Air Force Act.

It also removes doubts defects and lacunæ that existed in Army and Air Force Acts and makes their provisions uniform for officers, junior commissioned officers and other ranks.

S. 2 lays down definitions.

S. 3. The Commanding Officer of the Corps has the obligation of collecting the property of the deceased or a deserter, not being an officer and make an inventory thereof. He shall draw the pay and allowances due to such person and pay off the debts. He may collect moneys left in any banking Company. The Commanding Officer may cause the moveable property to be sold or converted into money. Debts and funeral expenses may be paid out of this money, and the surplus if any be paid to the representative of the deceased or to the prescribed person in case of a deserter.

S. 4. Similar procedure shall be followed in case of officers also, with few changes.

S. 5. Decision of the prescribed person shall be final in case of doubts as regards regimental or other debts.

S. 6. The Commanding Officer or the Committee should be the legal representative for all the purposes under the Act.

S. 7. The Central Government may direct the Commanding officer to hand over the estate of the deceased to the Administrator-General, who is bound to administer it according to the provisions of the Administrator General's Act.

S. 8 lays down procedure for disposal of surplus by prescribed persons.

S. 9. Prescribed person may convert property other than money into money.

S. 10. If the total amount of property to be handed over to the representatives of the deceased is not more than Rs. 500, the prescribed person may hand over without the production of a probate Letters of Administration etc.

S. 11. Any payment made in good faith under the provisions of this Act shall be valid and be a complete discharge to the person concerned.

S. 12. Property in the hands of Commanding Officer, committee etc. shall not be assets at the place where the Commanding Officer stationed. Hence it will not be necessary to take representation in respect of that property for that place.

S. 13 saves rights of representative.

S. 14. Sections 3 to 13 of this Act are to be made applicable to person of unsound mind or who is reported to be missing while on active service.

S. 15. A standing Committee of Adjustment shall be appointed for the purposes of disposing cases coming under section 14.

S. 16. The Central Government has power to make rules under this Act.

41. The Bhopal and Vindya Pradesh (Courts) Act.—Judicial Commissioners' Courts were established in Bhopal and Vindya Pradesh by Ordinances on the 25th January 1950. This Act replaces these Ordinances and makes a few additions.

S. 2 lays down definitions.

Chapter II consists of sections 3 to 13 and lays down details about the court of the Judicial Commissioner.

S. 3. Court of Judicial Commissioners shall be established for Bhopal and Vindya Pradesh.

S. 4 lays down qualifications for appointment as a Judicial Commissioner or additional Judicial Commissioner.

S. 5. Casual Vacancy in the office of the Judicial Commissioner shall be filled by the next senior judicial officer in that Court.

S. 6. Judicial Commissioner shall have rank and precedence before additional Judicial Commissioner.

S. 7. Judicial Commissioner shall decide the jurisdiction.

S. 8. The Court of Judicial Commissioner shall be the highest Court of appeal, revision or reference in the State.

Ss. 9, 10, 11 lay down rules about appointment of Registrar and other officers, keeping of registers, books of accounts and the procedure to be followed in the Court. The Judicial Commissioner may frame rules of procedure, contrary to those in the Civil Procedure Code or the Code of Criminal Procedure, with the sanction of the Chief Commissioner.

S. 12. The seat of the Court in Bhopal shall be Bhopal and of Vindhya Pradesh, Rewa.

Chapter III lays down details about subordinate Courts.

S. 14. There shall be the Court of the District Judge, of a subordinate judge and of a Munsiff.

S. 15. The Chief Commissioner shall divide the State into Civil Districts and district Judges will be appointed by him.

S. 16. Additional district Judges may be appointed if necessary.

S. 17. Subordinate Judges and Munsiffs may be appointed by the Judicial Commissioner.

Ss. 18 and 19. The District Court shall be the principal Civil Court of original jurisdiction without limit as regards value.

Ss. 20 and 21. Original jurisdiction of subordinate Judges and Munsiffs and local limits shall be determined by the Judicial Commissioner.

S. 22. The Judicial Commissioner has the power to regulate institution of particular classes of suits in particular Courts.

S. 23 deals with appointment of honorary subordinate Judges or Munsiffs.

S. 24. Small Cause Jurisdiction may be conferred on a subordinate Judge or a Munsiff.

S. 25. A subordinate Judge or a Munsiff may be authorised to take cognizance of any case under the Indian Succession Act, the Guardians and Wards Act or the Provincial Insolvency Act.

S. 26. Places of sittings of the Courts shall be fixed by the Judicial Commissioner.

S. 27. The district Judge shall have control over all the Civil Courts within the local limits of his jurisdiction.

S. 28. The district Judge, shall appoint ministerial officers of The Court.

S. 29. The district Judge may delegate his powers to any court under his control.

Chapter IV lays down rules for appeals and revisions in Civil cases.

S. 30 appeals from the Court of a subordinate Judge and Munsiff shall lie to the district court and in all other cases to the Court of Judicial Commissioner. In some cases an appeal may lie to the Subordinate Judge from any decree passed by a Munsiff if the Judicial Commissioner so directs.

S. 31. Rules for appeals from appellate decrees are laid down.

Ss. 32 to 34 lay down rules for period of limitation, for revisional powers of the Court of Judicial Commissioner and about the finality of decrees.

S. 35. Rules about Court-fees payable on revision are laid down.

Ss. 36 to 40 provide rules for temporary vacancies in the office of District Judge, delegation of power of district Judge, temporary vacancies in the office of subordinate Judge and continuance of powers of officers.

S. 40. Vacations of the Court shall be fixed by the Judicial Commissioner on the approval of the Chief Commissioner.

S. 41. The Court of Judicial Commissioner has power to make rules for the supervision of all courts etc.

S. 42. All Civil Courts other than the Court of the Judicial Commissioner in existence in the State of Vindhya Pradesh are abolished.

S. 43. Existing rights are saved.

S. 44 deals with repeals and savings.

42. The Ajmer Tenancy and Land Records Act.—The relations between landlords and tenants were governed by the Land and Revenue Regulation II of 1877. Under Section 21 of the Regulation, all tenants of any land whether cultivable or not comprised in *istimari* (a kind of tenure) estate, were tenants at will. This created a sense of insecurity amongst the tenants and clothed the landlords with arbitrary powers. The Act gives protection to the tenants. Chapter I is preliminary.

S. 2 repeals the Ajmer-Merwara Agrarian Relief (Second) Ordinance, 1949.

S. 3 saves rules, notifications, etc. issued under the Ordinance if they are not inconsistent with the provisions of this Act.

S. 4 lays down definitions and explanations.

S. 5. Landlords and tenants can act through agents for the purposes of anything to be done under this Act.

Chapter II lays down Primary rights and places the relations of landlords and tenants on a sound basis.

S. 6. A tenant is entitled to certain primary rights such as the use of the waste land for grazing his cattle, etc.

S. 7. A tenant shall not be ejected from his holding or evicted from his residential house or compelled to render service with or without remuneration.

S. 8. Any lease between the landlord and the tenant, purporting to restrict the rights of tenant shall be void.

S. 9. Certain rights of landlord are enumerated.

Chapter III lays down rules for *Niji Jot* which means land cultivated by a proprietor as such either himself or by servants or hired labour, and demarcated under the provisions of this Chapter.

S. 11. A proprietor may apply to the Sub-divisional Officer for demarcation as *Niji Jot*.

S. 12. The Sub-divisional Officer after hearing objections, and satisfying himself, shall pass an order for the demarcation as *Niji Jot*.

S. 13. Such demarcation shall be made on the spot and necessary records prepared.

S. 14. *Niji Jot* may be given on lease subject to certain restrictions.

S. 15. *Niji Jot* shall devolve according to rules of succession of proprietary right in such land for cultivation to tenants.

Chapter IV deals with classes of tenants.

S. 17. There shall be four classes of tenants (1) occupancy tenants, (2) ex-proprietary tenants, (3) hereditary tenants, (4) non-occupancy tenants.

Ss. 18 and 19 lay down definitions of occupancy and ex-proprietary tenants respectively.

S. 20. Mode of acquisition of ex-proprietary rights is laid down.

S. 21. Agreement for the relinquishment of ex-proprietary rights shall be void.

S. 22. Definition and explanation of hereditary tenants are given.

S. 23. In certain classes of lands hereditary rights shall not accrue.

S. 24. All tenants, other than first three classes of tenants are non-occupancy tenants.

Chapter V lays down rules for devolution, transfer, extinction, division, exchange and acquisition.

S. 25. The interest of a tenant is heritable but not transferable otherwise than by sub-lease.

S. 26. There shall not be any transfer or sub-lease in consideration of a debt.

S. 27. A tenant may sublet the whole or any portion of his holding. But there are certain restrictions on this right.

S. 28. On the death of a tenant, leaving no heir or when ejectment order is issued against him, the tenancy shall be extinguished. There are other methods also, of extinction.

S. 29. Surrender of tenancy by a female shall not extinguish her tenancy, unless it is with the written consent of nearest reversioner.

S. 30. If tenant's interest is extinguished, the rights of sub-tenant also come to an end.

S. 31. On extinction of the interest, the tenant shall vacate the holding.

S. 32. If a sub-tenant refuses to vacate, the *Tahshildar* shall evict him.

S. 33. A division of holding shall be effected either by agreement or by the order of *Tahshildar*.

S. 34. If there is a co-tenant the *Tahshildar* shall specify his share.

S. 35. A landlord may with the consent of the tenant give in exchange land for any land held by such tenant.

S. 36. There may be exchange of lands for consolidation of cultivated area. Such an exchange can be made only through a sub-divisional officer.

S. 37. A landlord may acquire land for his own purpose. He has to apply to the Collector for such acquisition and mention one of the grounds laid down in the section, such as farming on improved lines etc. The Collector shall settle the question of compensation and order the ejectment of the tenant from the land.

S. 38. In case of disputes in such proceedings the record shall be submitted by the Collector to the Chief Commissioner after deciding the dispute. The Collector may grant a certificate to the party stating that the matter is to be decided in a Civil Court.

S. 39. A tenant who is ejected under Section 37 is entitled to be reinstated under certain circumstances, such failure of the landlord to use the land for the purposes for which it was acquired.

S. 40. A tenant other than a non-occupancy tenant may acquire proprietary rights in his holding under this Section.

Chapter VI General provisions relating to tenancies.

S. 41. A tenant is entitled to a written lease from the landlord, if the landlord refuses, the tenant may apply to the *Tahshildar* who shall see that the tenant gets the lease.

S. 42. A lease for a period exceeding one year must be registered.

S. 43. In case of doubts as regards rights, the landlord or the tenant as the case may be, may apply to the sub-divisional officer.

S. 44. Certain tenants are entitled to make improvements.

S. 45. Non-occupancy tenant cannot make improvement without the consent of the landlord.

S. 46. If a landlord wants to make improvements he must take the permission of the sub-divisional officer.

S. 47. If both the landlord and the tenant wish to make improvements, the sub-divisional officer will give opportunity to the tenant to make such improvements. If the tenant fails to make the improvements the landlord shall have the right.

S. 48. There are certain restrictions on making the improvements.

S. 49. In certain cases compensation is permissible for improvements.

S. 50. Rules for determining compensation are laid down.

S. 51. If a tenant who has made improvements is evicted, he shall be entitled to compensation and the tenant to the benefit of the work in respect of land remaining in his possession.

S. 52. All disputes as regards improvements shall be decided by the Sub-Divisional Officer.

S. 53. A tenant who pays fixed money rent is entitled to plant trees on his holding.

S. 54. A non-occupancy tenant is also entitled to plant trees.

S. 55. Any tree standing on the holding at the commencement of the Act, shall vest in the tenant, if he was in possession of the holding for a period of not less than twelve years.

S. 56. Disputes as regards trees shall be decided by the sub-divisional officer.

S. 57. A tenant may surrender his lease.

S. 58. A tenant who ceases to cultivate his holding and leaves the neighbourhood shall not lose his interest if he leaves some person responsible for payment of rent.

S. 59. A landlord is entitled to take possession of the land, surrendered or abandoned in accordance with the provisions of this Act.

S. 60. Any dispute arising out of surrender or abandonment of land shall be decided by the *Tahshildar*.

Chapter VII deals with Premia and other levies.

S. 61. As a general rule acceptance of premium by a landlord is prohibited.

S. 62. Ordinarily no *lag* or *neg* be levied, but this prohibition does not extend to village development cess.

Chapter VIII lays down provisions for Rent and its recovery.

S. 63. Every tenant shall be liable to pay rent according to the provisions of this Act.

S. 64. Scale of rent for different classes of tenants is laid down. In no case it is more than one-fifth of the produce of the holding.

S. 65. A person who is permitted by the landlord to retain possession of land, unauthorizedly occupied by him, shall be considered to be a hereditary tenant.

S. 66. The produce of every holding shall be deemed to be hypothecated to the landlord for the rent.

S. 67. If such produce is attached by civil or revenue Court, notice of such attachment shall be given to the landlord who may apply for the sale of such produce for his rent.

S. 68. A landlord is entitled to collect rent if it is in *batai*, from a sub-tenant also.

S. 69. A landlord cannot claim cartage.

S. 70. Any payment made by a tenant to his landlord shall be presumed to have been made on account of rent.

S. 71. Modes of making payment of money rent are laid down.

S. 72. Every tenant has a right to get a receipt from the landlord.

S. 73. A landlord who fails to issue a proper notice will have to pay penalty.

S. 74. The Chief Commissioner is required to print and supply books of receipt.

S. 75. Penalty for non-production of receipt book with counterfoils, is mentioned.

S. 76. Tenants rights and liabilities in respect of produce are laid down.

S. 77. When the rent is payable in *batai*, the tenant may apply to *Tahshildar* for making division of the crop.

S. 78. If there be an agreement to pay *batai* rent by *Kuta*, an application to make *Kuta* may be made to *Tahshildar*.

S. 79. This section lays down procedure to be followed when an application is made.

S. 80. The Collector must publish a return of current prices.

S. 81. Rules for assessment of *bighori* by court are laid down.

S. 82. In certain cases *batai* rent may be commuted in *Bighori*.

S. 83. Rules about payment of commuted rent are laid down.

S. 84. Rent shall be payable in absence of any agreement, according to local custom. If it is not paid on due date, it shall be deemed to be in arrears.

S. 85. A landlord may apply to *Tahshildar* for the arrears of rent within two years of the date on which it becomes payable.

S. 86. The Court shall allow interest in cases of arrears of rent.

S. 87. A landlord has power to charge irrigation dues.

S. 88. Method of recovering *Sayar* is laid down.

S. 89. Arrears of *Sayar* may be realised as arrears of revenue, if the *Tahshildar* thinks so.

S. 90. If there is general refusal to pay rent, the *Tahshildar* shall recover it as arrears of revenue, on an application of the landlord. The record shall be submitted to the Collector for confirmation.

S. 91. Rules for payment of revenue by *biswadars* to *Jagirdars* and *Musafidars* are laid down.

Chapter IX deals with ejectment of tenants.

S. 92. Ordinarily if a tenant is ejected, for non-payment of arrears of rent, the arrears shall be deemed to have been satisfied.

S. 93. Method for execution of decree against a tenant is laid down.

S. 94. The court before ordering ejectment of a tenant shall award compensation due to him.

S. 95. A landlord may enter upon possession of a holding from which a tenant is ejected, after satisfying the directions of the Court ordering ejectment.

S. 96. Grounds of ejectment are enumerated.

S. 97. Special grounds of ejectment of non-occupancy tenants are mentioned.

Ss. 98 and 99. Procedure for ejectment for decreed arrears and on other grounds, is laid down.

S. 100. A landlord who wants to eject a non-occupancy tenant may apply to *Tahshildar* for the same.

S. 101. The procedure which the *Tahshildar* has to follow is laid down.

S. 102. Remedies that are open to a tenant for wrongful ejectment are mentioned.

S. 103. The procedure to be followed on such applications is laid down.

Ss. 104 and 105. Provision is made for ejectment of person occupying land without title and procedure to be followed in such cases.

Ss. 106 and 107. Consequences of failure to file application under Section 102 or 104 are mentioned and it is laid down that relief must be claimed in revenue courts only.

Chapter X lays down provisions for compensation and penalties.

S. 108. A tenant has a right to claim inquiry for illegal exaction and other similar matters. If the charge is proved, he is entitled to compensation.

S. 109. The Court has power to award compensation to a tenant, if the landlord is found guilty even in a proceeding for realization of arrears of rent.

S. 110. A landlord can be prosecuted for illegal exaction.

S. 111. A sub-divisional officer shall award compensation to the tenant if the landlord was guilty of illegal exaction and to the landlord if the tenant filed a false complaint.

S. 112. Penalty for habitual infringement of rights of tenant is laid down.

S. 113. Penalty for illegal entry on a holding is provided.

S. 114. Compensation shall be recovered as arrears of revenue.

Chapter XI lays down provisions for grants.

S.115 These provisions do not apply to a *Musafidar*.

S. 116. A list of grants which cannot be resumed is mentioned.

S. 118. Grounds on which certain grants can be resumed are enumerated.

S. 119. If the grant is resumable, the trial court shall order the ejectment of grantee.

S. 120. A list of chapters and sections of this Act, applicable to a grantee is mentioned.

S. 121. Ordinarily grants shall not be Transferable.

S. 122. A transaction by a grantee, in contravention of the provisions of this Act, shall be void.

S. 123. A sub-divisional officer has power to hear cases under Section 117.

Chapter XII lays down provisions as regards preparation of Record of Rights, determination and modification of rent and rent-rates.

S. 124. Record of Rights must be framed and rent-rates must be determined before a notification under Secotin. 1 (3) is made.

S. 125. The Collector has power to form and alter *patwari* circles.

S. 126. A *patwari* for each circle shall be appointed.

S. 127. One or more *Girdwars* for each *tahshil* shall be appointed.

S. 128. The cadre and pay of *girdawars* and *patwaris* shall be determined by the Chief Commissioner.

S. 129. *Girdawars* and *patwaris* are public servants.

S. 130. Maps and field-books shall be maintained and changes will be recorded annually.

S. 131. Every owner is bound to maintain properly the boundry-marks.

Ss. 132 and 133. There shall be a Record of Rights for each village and it will contain all necessary details.

S. 134. The Collector shall maintain a register of revenue-paying, revenue-assigned and revenue-free villages.

S. 135. Annual registers, recording all changes in the Record of Rights shall be maintained by the Collector.

S. 136. It is a legal duty of every person concerned with land to furnish necessary information for compilation of Record of Rights.

S. 137. Procedure for decision of disputes affecting entries in annual Registers is laid down.

Ss. 138 and 139. Contested cases relating to entries in annual registers shall be decided by the sub-divisional officer. But the decision shall not be a bar to civil suit.

S. 140. The entries in annual registers shall be presumed to be correct until the contrary is proved.

S. 141. The Collector has the power to appoint and punish if necessary the *Lambardars* and *Patels* in villages.

S. 142. As regards the estate mentioned in second Schedule to the Act, the Central Government may order preparation or revision of Record of Rights.

S. 143. Powers of record officers, assistant record officers and rent-rate officers are mentioned.

S. 144. Definition and explanation of sanctioned rate is given.

S. 145. Rent-rates are determined shall be valid for twenty years.

S. 146. Procedure for circle and soil classification is laid down.

S. 147. Basis of rates for hereditary tenants are mentioned.

S. 148. The rent-rate officer shall also provide for rates in cases of *Batai* and *Bighori*.

S. 149. Procedure to be followed in publishing and sanctioning rates is mentioned.

S. 150. Ordinarily no civil suit can lie in respect of any entry in Record of Rights.

Ss. 151 and 152. Commutation of rent from kind to cash and from cash to kind is allowed.

S. 153. Fixed money rent shall be liable to abatement under certain circumstances.

S. 154. Fixed money rent shall be liable to enhancement on three grounds mentioned in this Section.

S. 155. Every order for determination, commutation, etc., shall take effect from the commencement of agricultural year.

S. 156. Joinder of parties in cases relating to variation of rent is allowed.

S. 157. If a tenant is ejected from a part of his holding, either party may apply for determination of rent of the remainder.

S. 158. Method of calculating rent for commutation, variation or determination is laid down.

S. 159. Meaning of "substantial" is given.

S. 160. Basis of variation of rent in certain cases is mentioned.

S. 161. The period for which rent is not liable to modification is mentioned.

S. 162. Application for variation of rent will be entertained by sub-divisional officer or rent-rate officer.

Chapter XIII lays down extra-ordinary and emergency provisions.

S. 163. In an emergency the Central Government may appoint Assistant Commissioner with necessary powers; to revise revenue assessed, on any estate, etc. Orders passed by such officer shall be submitted to Collector for confirmation.

S. 164. The Central Government may remit or suspend for any period, the rent in agricultural calamities. In such cases revenue shall also be remitted or suspended.

S. 165. No landlord shall collect remitted or suspended revenue.

S. 166. Period of suspension is to be excluded in computing period of limitation.

S. 167. A court can also allow remission while decreeing a claim for arrears of rent if there was calamity like hail, draught, etc.

S. 168. An order for revision, remission, etc. cannot be called in question in any court except as allowed by this Act.

Chapter XIV lays down procedure and jurisdiction of Courts.

S. 169. Cases cognizable by revenue courts are mentioned.

S. 170. Procedure to be followed by revenue courts, is mentioned.

S. 171. The Indian Limitation Act shall be applicable in proceeding under this Act.

S. 172. No application shall be filed after the expiry of the period of limitation except as provided in S. 171.

S. 173. Rules about payment of court fees are laid down.

S. 174. Explanation of 'subordinate courts' is given.

S. 175. Rules about place of sitting of revenue courts are laid down.

S. 176. The Chief Commissioner may confer powers of a Collector on sub-divisional officers.

S. 177. A Collector may place an Assistant Commissioner in charge of a sub-division.

S. 178. A Collector may authorise certain courts to entertain and dispose of applications.

S. 179. A revenue court may refer a case for investigation and report.

S. 180. The Chief Commissioner may create *shamlat* Committee and Courts.

S. 181. Ordinarily a decree or order passed by a court shall be final.

S. 182. Procedure for submission of the record of a case to confirming court is mentioned.

S. 183. The requisite contents of a decree or order submitted for confirmation are mentioned.

S. 184. Procedure to be followed for confirmation is laid down.

S. 185. The Chief Commissioner may review, rescind, vary or confirm any order passed by him.

S. 186. Every revenue court has the power of review.

S. 187. Provision for revision is made.

S. 188. The Collector has power to transfer a case from one court to another.

S. 189. The Collector has power to withdraw cases to himself.

S. 190. A sub-divisional officer has also power to transfer cases.

S. 191. A record officer may also transfer and withdraw cases to himself.

S. 192. A district judge may transfer a case submitted to him for confirmation to a subordinate judge.

S. 193. Any dispute as regards ownership of land will be decided by the Collector.

S. 194. If a plea of proprietary rights is raised in revenue Courts, the procedure mentioned in this section is to be followed.

S. 195. The procedure which is to be followed when a plea of tenancy is raised in civil courts, is laid down.

S. 196. All cases of doubts as regards jurisdiction shall be decided by the Chief Commissioner.

S. 197. Provision for injunction and appointment of receiver, is made.

S. 198. Only in certain cases legal practitioners shall be entitled to appear.

S. 199. A party to a proceeding or his authorized agent may appear before a revenue court.

S. 200. A revenue court may allow and apportion costs in any proceedings.

S. 201. Revenue courts have power to summon persons whose attendance is necessary for the disposal of any case.

S. 202. Mode of service of summons is mentioned.

S. 203. The Chief Commissioner has power to make rules.

Secs. 204 and 205 make transactional provision. Tenants ejected before the commencement of this Act may be reinstated in certain cases, and provision is made for disposal of pending cases.

There are two Schedules to the Act. The first Schedule mentions fees for occupation of house sites and grazing fees. The second Schedules give a detailed list of the estates that are 74 in number.

43. The Representation of the Peoples Act (See also 73 for amendments).—Articles 81 and 170 of the Constitution of India lay down the maximum number of seats in Parliament and in the Legislative Assemblies of States, and also the principles to be followed in allocating seats in the House of the People among the States and in the State Legislative Assemblies, but have left the actual allocation of such seats to be provided by law. Article 171 lays down the maximum and minimum number of seats in the Legislative Council of a State and also specifies the various methods by which such seats shall be filled, but the actual number of seats to be filled has been left to be provided by law. This Act provides for allocation of seats in the House of the People and in the Legislative Assemblies and Legislative Councils of States. It also confers on the President power to delimit the constituencies for the purposes of election.

S. 3. Allocation of seats in the House of the People shall be as shown in the First Schedule to the Act.

S. 4. Representatives of Jammu and Kashmir and Andaman and Nicobar islands shall be nominated by the President. Other seats shall be filled by direct election.

Secs. 5 and 6 The President shall determine the constituencies and only such constituencies shall be recognised for the purposes of election.

S. 7. There shall be direct election for the seats in the Legislative Assemblies of each State. The total number of seats in each State is shown in second schedule.

Ss. 8 and 9. The President shall determine the constituencies for election and only such constituencies shall be legal for the purposes of election.

S. 10. Allocation of seats in the Legislative Councils of States shall be as shown in the Third Schedule.

S. 11. The President by order shall delimit constituencies for election to the Legislative Councils.

S. 12. The President may amend his earlier orders by a subsequent order as regards constituencies.

S. 13. Procedure for delimiting constituencies is laid down. Every order in this behalf shall be laid before Parliament.

S. 15. For every constituency there shall be an electoral roll.

S. 16. A person who is not a citizen of India or who is of unsound mind or who is for the time being disqualified shall not be entitled to be registered as a votor.

S. 17. No person shall be entitled to be registered in more than one constituency.

S. 18. No person shall be entitled to be registered in the electoral roll for any constituency more than once.

S. 19. Conditions of registration are laid down. The person must not be less than 21 years of age and must have been ordinarily resident in the constituency for not less than 180 days.

S. 20. Meaning of the phrase 'ordinarily resident' is given.

S. 21. Explains the phrases " qualifying date " and " qualifying period."

S. 22. Electoral roll for each constituency shall be prepared by Electoral Registration Officers.

S. 23. Electoral roll shall be prepared annually.

S. 24. The first roll shall remain in force till the 30th day of September 1952.

S. 25. In special cases there may be revision or correction of electoral rolls.

S. 26. Rules for the preparation of electoral rolls for the Legislative Assemblies of the States shall be the same as in case of Parliament.

S. 27. Rules for preparation of electoral rolls for Council constituencies are laid down

S. 28. The Central Government has power to make rules under this Act.

S. 29. All acts done previous to the commencement of this Act are validated.

S. 30. No Civil court shall have jurisdiction to entertain any question whether any person is or is not entitled to be registered, or as to legality of any action taken by the Registration Officer.

There are four Schedules to the Act.

44. The Displaced Persons (Claims) Act.—This Act replaces an earlier Ordinance on the same subject. The scheme of rehabilitation worked out by Government requires accurate information of the immoveable property left by the displaced persons in Pakistan. The Act empowers the Government to receive register and varify claims of displaced persons in respect of immoveable property they left in Western Pakistan. It prescribes penalties for submission of false or double claims.

S. 3. Registering officers may be appointed for registering claims.

S. 4. Chief Claims Commissioner may be appointed, and also joint Chief Commissioner or Claims Commissioner.

S. 5. Procedure for registration of claims is laid down.

S. 6. Jurisdiction of Claims Officer is mentioned.

S. 7. Powers of Claims officers are detailed.

S. 8. A case pending before one claims officer may be transferred to another claims officer.

S. 9. The Chief Claims Commissioner and other Commissioners, registering officers are public servants.

S. 10. No suit can lie in a Civil court for claims which are to be decided by such commissioners.

S. 11. All officers acting in good faith are protected and no suit can lie against them for such action.

S. 12. A person who submits false information or who submits his claim to more than one Registering officer shall be punishable with imprisonment which may extend to three years or with fine or with both.

S. 13. A person who abets such an offence shall also be punishable with similar punishment.

S. 14. Cognizance of an offence can be taken by a court only upon a complaint in writing from an authorised person.

S. 15. The Central Government may delegate its powers to the Chief Claims Commissioner.

S. 16. The Central Government has power to make rules.

45. The Air Force Act.—The Indian Air Force Act 1932 was modelled on the Indian Army Act 1911. But it departed from the latter Act principally in two chapters, *viz.* those on " Offences " and " Punishments". The Indian Army Act is revised. Hence a need of revision of Air Force Act was felt. This Act repeals the Act of 1932.

S. 2. All officers of Air Force, persons enrolled under the Act, persons belonging to the Indian Air Force, Volunteer Reserve etc. will be subject to this Act.

S. 3. Termination of application of this Act will be either on retirement, release, removal or dismissal.

S. 4. Definitions of various terms are given.

Chapter II deals with special provision for application of this Act to any force raised or maintained in India.

S. 6. The Central Government may by notification lay down special provisions as to ranks in certain cases.

S. 7. A person subject to this Act shall not be placed under the command of an officer of rank inferior to that of such a person.

S. 8. The Central Government may prescribe the officer who will exercise the powers which, under this Act may be exercised by air officers in charge of commands.

S. 9. The Central Government have the power to declare persons to be on active service.

Chapter III deals with Commission, Appointment and Enrolment.

S. 10. The President may grant commission in the Air Force.

S. 11. Aliens, but not Nepalese, are ineligible for Commission in Air Force without the consent of the Central Government.

S. 12. As a rule females are ineligible for enrolment in Air Force. Exceptions may be made by the Central Government.

S. 13. Procedure to be followed before enrolling an Officer is laid down.

S. 14. Mode of enrolment is stated.

S. 15. Validity of enrolment cannot be challenged on grounds of irregularity if a person has been on the rolls for a period of three months.

S. 16. A list of class of persons who shall be attested is mentioned.

S. 17. Mode of attestation is laid down.

Chapter IV lays down conditions of service.

S. 18. Every person shall hold office during the pleasure of the President.

S. 19. The Central Government may dismiss the services of any person subject to the rules and regulations made under this Act.

S. 20. Powers of the Commander-in-Chief and other officers with respect to removal or reduction of a person are mentioned.

S. 21. The Central Government have power to modify certain fundamental rights in their application to persons subject to this Act.

S. 22. Provision for retirement, release or discharge is made.

S. 23. Certificate on the Termination of service will be issued to proper person.

S. 24. Procedure for discharge or dismissal of a person when out of India is laid down.

Chapter V lays down Service Privileges.

S. 25. The pay of every person shall be paid to him without any unauthorized deductions.

S. 26. Any aggrieved airman can complain to the officer under whose command he is serving for any legitimate grievance. The Commanding Officer shall investigate all such complaints.

S. 27. Any aggrieved officer, if dissatisfied with the decision of his commanding officer may complain to the Central Government.

S. 28. The arms, clothes equipment etc., are immune from attachment in satisfaction of any decree against a person serving in Air Force.

S. 29. No person, subject to this Act, shall be liable to be arrested for any debt.

S. 30. Persons attending courts-martial shall be immune from arrest, while proceeding to the Court.

S. 31. These privileges shall also be enjoyed by the reserves when called out for training or service.

S. 32. Priority will be given to persons in the Air Force in respect of their personal litigation. Such persons shall produce certificate from the proper authority.

S. 33. These privileges are in addition to those that might have been conferred by any other law in force.

Chapter VI deals with offences.

S. 34. A list of offences in relation to the enemy and which are punishable with death is given. The list contains 15 offences.

S. 35. Offences in relation to the enemy but not punishable with death are enumerated.

S. 36. A list of offences, which when committed while on active service, are likely to be punished more severely than when not on active service, is given.

S. 37. Definition of and punishment for 'Mutiny' is given.

S. 38. Punishment for 'desertion' or 'aiding desertion' is mentioned.

S. 39. Punishment for 'remaining absent without leave' is provided.

S. 40. Punishment for striking or threatening superior officer is laid down.

S. 41. Punishment for disobedience to superior officer may extend to fourteen years.

S. 42. Punishment for insubordination and obstruction may extend to ten years.

S. 43. Punishment for fraudulent enrolment may extend to five years.

S. 44. A person giving false answers at the time of enrolment shall be liable to suffer punishment extending upto five years.

S. 45. Any officer guilty of unbecoming conduct shall be liable to suffer punishment as laid down in this Act.

S. 46. Certain forms of disgraceful conduct are enumerated.

S. 47. Any officer who ill-treats his subordinate shall be liable to suffer imprisonment which may extend to seven years.

S. 48 Punishment for intoxication is laid down.

S. 49. Any person who permits escape of person in custody shall be liable to suffer punishment which may extend upto fourteen years.

S. 50. A person guilty of irregularity in connection with arrest or confinement shall be liable to suffer punishment which may extend to two years.

S. 51. A person escaping from custody shall be liable to suffer punishment for a term of five years.

S. 52. Offences in respect of property are laid down. Maximum punishment for such offences shall be ten years.

S. 53. Punishment for extortion or corruption may extend to ten years.

S. 54. Punishment for making away with equipment may extend to ten years.

S. 55. Punishment for injury to property may extend to seven years.

S. 56. A person guilty of false accusation shall be liable to suffer imprisonment which may extend to five years.

S. 57. Punishment for falsifying official documents and making false declaration may extend to fourteen years.

S. 58. Punishment for signing in blank and failure to report may extend to seven years.

S. 59. Punishment for offences relating to courts-martial may extend to three years.

S. 60. Any person giving false evidence shall be liable to suffer imprisonment which may extend to seven years.

S. 61. Punishment for unlawful detention of pay may extend to ten years.

Ss. 62 and 63. Offences in relation to aircraft and flying, are enumerated and punishment provided.

S. 64. Any person guilty of disobedience of lawful command of captain of aircraft shall be liable to suffer imprisonment which may extend to seven years.

S. 65. Punishment for violation of good order and air force discipline may extend to seven years.

S. 66. Miscellaneous offences are enumerated and punishment provided.

S. 67. Punishment for attempt to commit any of the above mentioned offences is provided.

S. 68. Punishment for abetment shall be the same as laid down for the offence itself.

S. 69. Punishment for abetment of offences punishable with death may extend to fourteen years in those cases where the offence was not actually committed.

S. 70. Punishment for abetment of offences punishable with imprisonment shall extend to one half of the longest term provided for that offence, if the offence is not committed.

Ss. 71 and 72. Civil offences are enumerated and rules for punishment provided.

Chapter VII contains 18 sections that lay down detail provisions about punishment.

S. 73. Punishments awardable by courts-martial are mentioned.

S. 74. Rules about alternative punishment to be awarded by courts-martial are laid down.

S. 75. In certain cases combination of punishments is allowed.

S. 76. In certain cases an officer shall be sentenced to be cashiered before he is awarded any punishment.

Ss. 77 and 78. Rules about field-punishment are laid down.

S. 79. A warrant officer sentenced by a court-martial to transportation shall be deemed to be reduced to the ranks.

S. 80. A person while on active service even if sentenced to transportation may be directed to serve in ranks and such service shall be reckoned as part of his term of transportation.

S. 81. Rules about punishments otherwise than by courts-martial are laid down.

Ss. 82, 84 and 85. Rules about punishment of persons other than officers and Warrant Officers are provided.

S. 83. In certain cases previous sanction of an officer having power to convene a district court-martial is necessary.

Ss. 86, 87 and 88. Provision for punishment of officers and warrant officers is made.

S. 89. Definition of 'superior air authority' is laid down.

S. 90. Circumstances under which collective fines may be imposed are mentioned.

Chapter VIII deals with penal deductions.

S. 91. Deductions from pay and allowances of officers may be made by way of penalty. The section mentions the circumstances under which such deductions may be made.

S. 92. Provision for deduction from pay and allowances of airmen is made by this Section.

S. 93. Rules for computation of time of absence, or custody, are mentioned.

S. 94. Pay and Allowances of a person under trial may be withheld.

S. 95. Total deductions from pay and allowances shall not exceed in any month one half of the pay for that month.

S. 96. Deductions may be made from public money due to the person.

S. 97. Pay and allowances of a prisoner of war during inquiry into his conduct may be withheld.

S. 98. Such deductions may be remitted as directed by the proper authority.

Ss. 99 and 100. Provision may be made for dependents of prisoner of war from remitted deductions or from pay and allowances.

S. 101. A person shall be deemed to be a prisoner of war until the conclusion of the inquiry into his conduct.

Chapter IX provides for arrests and proceedings before trial.

S. 102. A person charged with an offence may be taken into air force custody.

S. 103. A person can be detained in custody only for forty-eight hours. He shall not be detained further without the charge being investigated.

S. 104. If the interval between committal and court-martial is more than eight days, a report giving reasons for delay shall be made to the Commanding Officer.

S. 105. Civil authorities shall aid in apprehension of an accused and delivery to the air force authority.

S. 106. Civil authorities shall help in capture of deserters.

S. 107. A court of inquiry shall be assembled, to inquire into absence without leave for more than thirty days.

S. 108. Provision for appointments of provost martials is made.

Chapter X makes provision for courts-martial.

S. 109. There shall be three kinds of courts-martial, general, district and summary general courts-martial.

S. 110. Power to convene a general courts-martial is with the Central Government or the C.-in-C.

S. 111. A district court-martial may be convened by an authorised officer.

S. 112. The warrant issued may contain such details as the officer wants.

S. 113. A summary general court-martial may be convened by the C.-in-C. or the commanding officer when on active service.

Ss. 114, 115 and 116. A general court-martial shall consist of not less than five officers, a district and a summary general courts-martial of not less than three.

S. 117. If the court-martial is reduced below the minimum number of officers after the commencement of the trial, it shall be dissolved, and the accused may be tried again.

S. 118. A general or summary general courts-martial has power to try any person subject to this Act.

S. 119. A district court-martial may try any person other than an officer or warrant officer and the sentence must be other than a sentence of death or imprisonment for a term exceeding two years.

S. 120. If a person has been once properly tried, there cannot be a second trial for the same offence.

S. 121. Period of limitation for trials is laid down.

S. 122. Even if a person ceases to be subject to this Act, his liability continues for six months in some cases and in others even after that period.

S. 123. The place of trial may be any place whatever.

S. 124. A choice between criminal court and court-martial lies with the Commanding Officer.

S. 125. A criminal Court can insist that an offender must be tried in a criminal court and not in court-martial and for this purpose may require the delivery of the offender.

S. 126. A person tried by a court-martial may be tried again by a criminal court which shall have regard, in awarding punishment to the punishment already undergone.

Chapter XI lays down procedure of Courts-Martial.

S. 127. The Senior member shall be the presiding officer.

S. 128. There shall be a judge Advocate.

S. 129. The accused has a right to challenge and object to a particular officer being a member of the Court. Such objection shall be heard by the other officers.

S. 130. An oath or an affirmation shall be administered to the members of the court, Judge advocate and the witnesses.

S. 131. The decision shall be by an absolute majority. In case of equality of votes the judgment shall be in favour of the accused and for a death sentence at least two-thirds majority is necessary.

S. 132. The Indian Evidence Act 1872 shall apply to proceedings before a court-martial.

S. 133. A court-martial may take judicial notice of any matter within the general air force knowledge of the members.

S. 134. Procedure for summoning witnesses is laid down.

S. 135. A list of documents exempted from production is given.

S. 136. The Chief legal Adviser may issue a commission for examination of witnesses to a district magistrate or magistrate of the First Class.

S. 137. Procedure for examination of witnesses on commission is mentioned.

S. 138. In certain cases an accused may be convicted of an offence, though he was not charged with it. Altogether eight cases of this class are mentioned.

S. 139. There shall be presumption that relevant documents such as application, etc., have been duly signed.

S. 140. Enrolment paper shall be an evidence of enrolment.

S. 141. Presumption as to certain documents is mentioned.

S. 142. If an accused makes a reference to any Government officer in his own defence, the court shall address such Officer and adjourn the proceedings until the receipt of the reply.

S. 143. Evidence of previous convictions and general character may be recorded.

S. 144. Procedure to be followed in case of lunacy of the accused is mentioned.

S. 145. Procedure to be followed, if the lunatic accused becomes subsequently fit, is laid down.

S. 146. A copy of an order issued under section 145 shall be sent to the Central Government.

S. 147. The Central Government may order release or transfer of the lunatic accused.

S. 148. The Central Government may deliver the lunatic accused to his relatives on giving security to the Government.

S. 149. The court may make proper order for custody and disposal of property pending trial.

S. 150. The court may make any proper order for the disposal of property regarding which an offence is committed.

S. 151. Trial by a court-martial under the provisions of this Act shall be deemed to be a judicial proceeding within the meaning of Sections 193 and 228 of I.P.C. and the court-martial shall be deemed to be a court.

Chapter XII lays down rules about confirmation and revision.

S. 152. Finding and sentence by a court shall not be valid, unless confirmed.

S. 153. The power of confirmation when the sentence is passed by a general court-martial is with the Central Government.

S. 154. If the sentence is passed by district court-martial, it shall be confirmed by an authorised officer.

S. 155. A warrant issued may contain such restrictions as the authority thinks fit.

S. 156. Sentence passed by summary general court-martial may be confirmed by the convening officer.

S. 157. The confirming authority may mitigate or remit the punishment awarded. But there are certain restrictions on the exercise of this power.

S. 158. Confirmation of findings and sentence given on board a ship, may be made at the port of disembarkation.

S. 159. Any finding or sentence may be revised by the confirming authority.

S. 160. In certain cases alteration of sentences is allowed.

S. 161. Any aggrieved person may present petition to the confirming authority against the finding or sentence of court-martial. A petition against the confirming authority may be presented to the Central Government.

S. 162. Proceedings of a court-martial may be annulled if they are found to be illegal or unjust.

Chapter XIII provides for execution of sentences.

S. 163. Death sentence may be either in the form of hanging by neck or by being shot to death.

S. 164. Commencement of sentence will be reckoned from the day on which the original proceedings were signed.

S. 165. If a sentence of transportation is passed, a warrant shall be forwarded to the officer in charge of the civil prison in which such person is to be confined.

S. 166. In other cases the sentence shall be carried out by confinement in military or air force prison.

S. 167. For the intervening period the offender may be kept in military or air force custody.

S. 168. If the sentence cannot be carried out in military or air force custody the convict may be transferred to any civil prison.

S. 169. A prisoner who is being conveyed from place to place shall be subject to necessary restraint.

S. 170. Provision for execution of sentence of detention, is made.

S. 171. Any order setting aside or varying any sentence shall be communicated to the appropriate prison officer.

S. 172. Procedure for execution of sentence of fine, is laid down.

S. 173. The Central Government may establish air force prison.

S. 174. Informality or error in any warrant will not render the sentence illegal.

Ss. 175 and 176. The Central Government has power to make rules in respect of prison and prisoners.

Chapter XIV deals with pardons, remissions and suspensions.

S. 177. The C.-in-C. may with or without condition pardon the person or remit the punishment awarded or commute such punishment.

S. 178. Conditional pardon, release or parole or remission may be cancelled.

S. 179. Reduction in rank of a W.O. or N.C.O. shall be considered as punishment.

S. 180. Sentence of transportation, or imprisonment, or detention may be suspended.

S. 181. The confirming authority may order suspension of sentence.

S. 182. If the sentence is suspended, the Offender shall be released forthwith.

S. 183. The period of suspension shall be reckoned as part of the term of such sentence.

S. 184. The authority may order remission of the sentence after suspension or that the offender ought to undergo the unexpired portion of the sentence.

S. 185. Every case after suspension of the sentence shall be reconsidered.

S. 186. Provision is made for cases in which an offender whose sentence is suspended, is sentenced for some other offence.

S. 187. Powers conferred by sections 180 and 184 shall be in addition of the power of mitigation, remission and commutation.

S. 188. Effect of suspension and remission or dismissal is mentioned.

Chapter XV lays down provisions for making rules.

S. 189. The Central Government has power to make rules for the purpose of carrying into effect the provisions of this Act.

S. 190. The Central Government has power to make regulations.

S. 191. Rules and Regulations made under this Act shall be published in the Gazette.

S. 192. The Indian Air Force Act, 1932 is repealed except sections 126 to 128 L.

Chapter XVI makes transitory provisions sections 193 and 194 define and lay down powers of 'British Officer'.

46. The Army Act.—A revision of the Indian Army Act 1911 became necessary after the 15th August 1947. The objects of the revision of the Army Act are, (*a*) to make it self-sufficient by incorporating relevant provisions from related enactments, (*b*) to adopt the existing provisions to suit the new constitutional set-up and present day requirements, and (*c*) on the one hand to bridge the gap between the Army and the Civil Laws as far as possible in the matter of punishment for offences and on the other to eliminate the disparity between the corresponding provisions of the Army and the Air Force Acts. The Act makes provision for the forces of the States in Part B becoming subject to the Army Act; the exclusion of aliens from service except with the consent of the Central Government, etc. Provisions of subsidiary enactments like the Indian Army (Suspension of Sentences) Act 1920 and Ordinances Nos. XXXVI of 1943 and XXXVII of 1945 relating to penal deductions of pay and allowances of prisoners of war, have been incorporated in the Act.

S. 2. All officers, persons enrolled under this Act. Indian Reserve Forces, Indian Supplementary Reserve Forces when called out for service. Officers of the Territorial Army under certain circumstances, etc. shall be subject to this Act.

S. 3. Definitions of various terms are given.

Chapter II deals with special provisions for application of this Act in certain cases.

S. 4. The Central Government may apply this Act to any force raised in India.

S. 5. The Central Government may direct that this Act shall be applicable to forces of Part B States.

S. 6. The Central Government may lay down special provisions as to ranks in certain cases.

S. 7. A person subject to this Act shall not be placed under the command of an officer of rank inferior to that of such a person.

S. 8. The Central Government may prescribe the officer who will exercise the powers, which under this Act, are to be exercised by officers commanding armies.

S. 9. The Central Government have the power to declare persons to be on active service.

Chapter III deals with Commission, Appointment and Enrolment.

S. 10. The President may grant Commissions in the regular Army.

S. 11. Aliens, but not Nepalese, are ineligible for commission in the regular Army.

S. 12. As a general rule females are ineligible for enrolment in the regular Army. Exceptions may be made by the Central Government.

S. 13. Procedure to be followed before enrolling an officer is laid down.

S. 14. Mode of enrolment is stated.

S. 15. Validity of enrolment cannot be challenged on grounds of irregularity if a person has been on the rolls for a period of three months.

S. 16. A list of class of persons who shall be attested is laid down.

S. 17. Mode of attestation is provided.

Chapter IV lays down conditions of service.

S. 18. Every person shall hold office during the pleasure of the President.

S. 19. The Central Government may dismiss services of any person subject to the rules and regulations under this Act.

S. 20. Powers of the Commander-in-Chief and other officers with respect to removal or reduction of a person, are mentioned.

S. 21. The Central Government has power to modify certain fundamental rights in their application to persons subject to this Act.

S. 22. Provision for retirement, release or discharge is made.

S. 23. Certificate on the termination of service will be issued to proper persons.

S. 24. Procedure for discharge or dismissal of a person when out of India is laid down.

Chapter V lays down Service Privileges.

S. 25. The pay of every person shall be paid to him without any unauthorised deductions.

S. 26. Any aggrieved person other than an officer, may complain to the officer under whose command he is serving for any legitimate grievance. The Commanding Officer shall investigate all such complaints.

S. 27. Any aggrieved officer, if dissatisfied with the decision of his Commanding Officer may complain to the Central Government.

S. 28. The Arms, clothes, equipment, etc. of a person in the Army cannot be attached in satisfaction of any decree against him.

S. 29. No person, subject to this Act, shall be liable to be arrested for any debt.

S. 30. Persons attending courts-martial shall be immune from arrest, while proceeding to the Court.

S. 31. These privileges shall also be enjoyed by the Reserve Forces when called out for training or service.

S. 32. Priority will be given to persons subject to this Act, in respect of their personal litigation. Such persons shall produce certificate from the proper authority.

S. 33. These privileges are in addition to those that might have been conferred by any other law in force.

Chapter VI deals with offences.

S. 34. A list of offences in relation to enemy and punishable with death is given. The list contains 12 offences.

S. 35. Offences in relation to enemy but not punishable with death are enumerated.

S. 36. A list of offences, which when committed while on active service, are likely to be punished more severely than when not on active service, is given.

S. 37. Definition of and punishment for "mutiny" is given.

S. 38. Punishment for "desertion" or "aiding desertion" is mentioned.

S. 39. Punishment for "remaining absent without leave" is provided.

S. 40. Punishment for striking or threatening superior officer is laid down.

S. 41. Punishment for disobedience to superior officer may extend to fourteen years.

S. 42. Punishment for insubordination and obstruction may extend to ten years.

S. 43. Punishment for fraudulent enrolment may extend to five years.

S. 44. A person giving false answers at the time of enrolment, shall be liable to suffer punishment extending upto five years.

S. 45. Any officer guilty of unbecoming conduct shall be liable to suffer punishment as laid down in this Act.

S. 46. Certain forms of disgraceful conduct are mentioned.

S. 47. Any officer who ill-treats a subordinate shall be liable to suffer punishment which may extend to seven years.

S. 48. Punishment for intoxication is laid down.

S. 49. Any person who permits escape of a person in custody shall be liable to suffer punishment which may extend upto fourteen years.

S. 50. A person guilty of irregularity in connection with arrest or confinement shall be liable to suffer punishment which may extend to two years.

S. 51. Maximum punishment for escape from custody is five years.

S. 52. Offences in respect of property are laid down. Maximum punishment shall be ten years.

S. 53. Punishment for extortion or corruption may extend to ten years.

S. 54. Punishment for making away with equipment, etc. may extend to ten years.

S. 55. Punishment for injury to property may extend to seven years.

S. 56. A person guilty of false accusation shall be liable to suffer imprisonment which may extend to five years.

S. 57. Maximum punishment for falsifying official documents and for making false declaration is fourteen years.

S. 58. Punishment for signing in blank and failure to report may extend to seven years.

S. 59. Maximum punishment for offences relating to courts-martial is three years.

S. 60. A person giving false evidence shall be liable to suffer imprisonment which may extend to seven years.

S. 61. Punishment for unlawful detention of pay may extend to ten years.

S. 62. Offences in relation to aircraft and flying are mentioned and punishment provided.

S. 63. Punishment for violation of good order and military discipline may extend to seven years.

S. 64. Miscellaneous offences are mentioned and punishment provided.

S. 65. Punishment for attempt to commit any of the above mentioned offence is provided.

S. 66. Maximum punishment for abetment of offences shall be the same as provided for the offences.

S. 67. Punishment for abetment of offences punishable with death may extend to fourteen years if the offence was not actually committed.

S. 68. Punishment for abetment of offences punishable with imprisonment shall extend to one-half of the longest term provided for that offence, if the offence is not committed.

Ss. 69 and 70. Civil offences are explained and rules for punishment are provided.

Chapter VII lays down detail provisions about punishment.

S. 71. Punishment awardable by courts-martial are mentioned.

S. 72. Rules about alternative punishment awardable by court-martial are laid down.

S. 73. In certain cases combination of punishments is allowed.

S. 74. In certain cases an officer shall be cashiered before he is awarded any punishment.

S. 75. Rules about "Field punishment" are laid down.

S. 76. A warrant officer sentenced by a court-martial to transportation shall be deemed to be reduced in rank.

S. 78. A person on active service, if sentenced to transportation may be directed to serve in ranks and such service shall be reckoned as part of his term of transportation.

S. 79. Rules about punishment otherwise than by court-martial are laid down.

Ss. 80, 81 and 82. Lay down rules for punishment of persons other than officers, junior commissioned officers and warrant officers.

S. 83. A Brigade Commander may proceed against any officer below the rank of a field officer and award the punishment mentioned in the section.

S. 84. An area-commander may try any officer below the rank of a lieutenant-colonel and may forfeit his seniority or award any other punishment mentioned in the section.

S. 85. The sentence which a Commanding Officer may inflict on the junior Commissioned Officer is stoppage of pay and allowances.

S. 86. Certified true copies of proceedings must be forwarded to a superior military authority when any action is taken under one of sections 83 to 85.

S. 87. The superior military authority may remit the punishment.

S. 88. Definition of "a superior military authority" is given.

S. 89. Circumstances under which Collective fines may be imposed are mentioned.

Chapter VIII deals with penal deductions.

S. 90. Deductions may be made from pay and allowances of officers by way of penalty. The section mentions the circumstances under which such deductions may be made.

S. 91. Penal deductions from pay and allowances of persons other than officers, may also be made.

S. 92. Rules for computation of time of absence or custody are mentioned.

S. 93. Pay and allowances of a person under trial may be withheld.

S. 94. Total deductions from pay and allowances shall not exceed in any month one-half of the pay for that month.

S. 95. Deductions may be made from public money due to the person.

S. 96. Pay and allowances of a prisoner of war during inquiry into his conduct may be withheld.

S. 97. Deductions authorised by this Act may be remitted at the direction of proper authority.

Ss. 98 and 99. Provision may be made for the dependants of prisoners of war from remitted deductions or from pay and allowances.

S. 100. A person shall be deemed to be a prisoner of war until the conclusion of the inquiry into his conduct.

Chapter IX provides for arrest and proceedings before trial.

S. 101. A person charged with an offence may be taken into military custody.

S. 102. A person can be detained in custody only for forty-eight hours. He shall not be detained further, without the charge being investigated.

S. 103. If the interval between the committal and court-martial is more than eight days, a report giving reasons for delay shall be made to the Commanding Officer.

S. 104. Civil authorities shall aid in apprehension of an accused and delivery to the military authority.

S. 105. Civil authorities shall help in capture of deserters.

S. 106. A court of inquiry shall be assembled, to inquire into absence without leave for more than thirty days.

S. 107. Provision for appointment of a provost-martials is made.

Chapter X makes provision for court-martial.

S. 108. There shall be four kinds of courts-martial. They are: (1) general courts-martial, (2) district courts-martial, (3) summary general courts-martial; and (4) summary courts-martial.

S. 109. Power to convene a general Courts-martial is with the Central Government or C.-in-C.

S. 110. A district court-martial may be convened by an authorised officer.

S. 111. The Warrant issued may contain such detail as the Officer wants.

S. 112. A summary general court-martial may be convened by the C.-in-C. or the Commanding Officer when on active service.

Ss. 113, 114 and 115. A general court-martial shall consist of not less than five officers, a district and summary general courts-martial, of not less than three.

S. 116. A summary court-martial shall consist of the Commanding Officer only. But the proceedings shall be attended by two officers.

S. 117. If the court-martial is reduced below the minimum number of officers after the commencement of the trial, the Court shall be dissolved and the accused may be tried again.

S. 118. General and summary general courts-martial have power to try any person subject to this Act.

S. 119. A district court-martial may try any person other than an Officer or J.C.O. and the sentence must be other than a sentence of death or imprisonment for a term exceeding two years.

S. 120. A summary court-martial may try any offence. It can pass any sentence except a sentence of death or transportation or imprisonment exceeding one year.

S. 121. If a person has been once properly tried, there cannot be a second trial for the same offence.

S. 122. Period of limitation for trial is laid down.

S. 123. Even if a person ceases to be subject to this Act, his liability continues for six months and in cases of desertion or fraudulent enrolment even after that period. If he is sentenced to death by a court-martial, the Act shall apply to him till the sentence is carried out.

S. 124. The place of trial may be any place whatever.

S. 125. A choice between criminal court and court-martial lies with the Commanding Officer.

S. 126. A criminal court can insist that an offender must be tried in a criminal court and for this purpose may require the delivery of the offender.

S. 127. A person tried by a court-martial may be tried again on the same facts by a criminal court which shall have regard in awarding punishment to the punishment already undergone.

Chapter XI lays down procedure of Courts-martial.

S. 128. The senior member shall be the presiding officer.

S. 129. There shall be a Judge-Advocate.

S. 130. The accused has a right to challenge and object to a particular officer being a member of the Court. Such objection shall be heard by the other officers.

S. 131. An oath or an affirmation shall be administered to the members of the Court, Judge-Advocate and the witnesses.

S. 132. The decision shall be by an absolute majority. In case of equality of votes the decision shall be in favour of the accused, and for a death sentence at least two-thirds majority is necessary.

S. 133. The Indian Evidence Act, 1872 shall apply to all proceedings before a court-martial.

S. 134. A court-martial may take judicial notice of any matter within the general military knowledge of the members.

S. 135. Procedure for summoning witnesses is laid down.

S. 136. A list of documents exempted from production is given.

S. 137. The Judge-Advocate-General may issue a commission to any district magistrate or magistrate of the first Class for examination of witnesses.

S. 138. The procedure for examination of witnesses on commission is mentioned.

S. 139. In certain cases an accused may be convicted of an offence though he was not charged with it. Altogether eight cases of this class are mentioned.

S. 140. There shall be presumtion that relevant documents such as application, etc., have been duly signed.

S. 141. Enrolment paper shall be an evidence of enrolment.

S. 142. Presumption as to certain documents is mentioned.

S. 143. If an accused makes a reference to any Government Officer in his own defence, the Court shall write to such officer and adjourn the proceedings until the receipt of the reply.

S. 144. Evidence of previous conviction and general character may be inquired into.

S. 145. If the accused by reason of unsoundness of mind is unable to make his defence, the Court shall forthwith report the case to the Confirming Officer who may either confirm the findings or order the trial of the accused.

S. 146. Procedure to be followed if the lunatic accused becomes subsequently fit, is mentioned.

S. 147. A copy of the Order issued under Section 146 shall be sent to the Central Government.

S. 148. The Central Government may order either release or transfer of the lunatic accused.

S. 149. The Central Government may deliver the lunatic accused to his relatives on giving security to the Government.

S. 150. The Court may make proper order for custody and disposal of property pending trial.

S. 151. The Court may make any proper order for the disposal of property regarding which an offence is committed.

S. 152. Trial by a court-martial under this Act shall be deemed to be a judicial proceeding, within the meaning of sections 193 and 228 of I.P.C. and the court-martial shall be seemed to be a Court.

Chapter XII lays down rules about confirmation and revision.

S. 153. No finding or sentence shall be valid unless confirmed.

S. 154. The power of confirmation, when the sentence is passed by a general court-martial, is with the Central Government.

S. 155. If the sentence is passed by a district court-martial, it shall be confirmed by an authorised officer.

S. 156. A warrant issued under sections 154 and 155 may contain such restrictions as the issuing authority may think fit.

S. 157. Sentence passed by summary general court-martial may be confirmed by the convening officer.

S. 158. The Confirming authority may mitigate or remit the punishment awarded. But there are certain restrictions on the exercise of this power.

S. 159. Confirmation of findings and sentence, given on board a ship may be made, at the port of disembarkation.

S. 160. Any finding or sentence may be revised by the confirming authority.

S. 161. Finding and sentence of a summary court-martial shall not require to be confirmed but may be carried out forthwith except in a case when the officer holding the trial is of less than five years' service.

S. 162. The proceedings of every summary court-martial shall be forwarded to the officer commanding or other authorised officer who may set aside the proceedings or reduce the sentence.

S. 163. In certain cases alteration of finding or sentence is allowed.

S. 164. Any aggrieved person may present petition to the confirming authority against the findings or sentence of a court-martial. A petition against the confirming authority may be presented to the Central Government.

S. 165. Proceedings of a court-martial may be annulled if they are illegal or unjust.

Chapter XIII provides for execution of sentences.

S. 166. Death sentence may be either in the form of hanging by neck or by being shot to death.

S. 167. Commencement of sentence will be reckoned from the day on which the original proceedings were signed.

S. 168. If a sentence of transportation is passed, a warrant shall be forwarded to the officer in charge of the Civil prison in which such person is to be confined.

S. 169. In other cases the sentence shall be carried out by confinement either in military prison or civil prison.

S. 170. For temporary period the offender may be kept in a military prison or custody.

S. 171. If the sentence cannot be carried out in a military prison the offender may be transferred to any civil prison.

S. 172. A prisoner who is being conveyed from place to place shall be subject to necessary restraint.

S. 173. Any order setting aside or varying any sentence shall be communicated to the appropriate prison officer.

S. 174. Procedure for execution of sentence of fine is laid down.

S. 175. The Central Government may establish military prisons.

S. 176. Informality or error in the order or warrant will not render the sentence illegal.

S. 177. The Central Government has power to make rules in respect of prison and prisoners.

S. 178. There are restrictions on the rule-making power as regards corporal punishment.

Chapter XIV deals with pardons, remission and suspensions.

S. 179. The C.-in-C. may with or without condition pardon the person or remit or commute the punishment awarded.

S. 180. Conditional pardon, release on parole or remission may be cancelled.

S. 181. Reduction in rank of a W.O. or N.C.O. may be considered as punishment.

S. 182. The Central Government or the C.-in-C. may order suspension of sentence of imprisonment.

S. 183. The confirming authority may direct that the offender be not committed to prison until the orders of the authority mentioned in section 182 have been obtained.

S. 184. If the sentence is suspended the offenders shall be released forthwith.

S. 185. The period of suspension shall be reckoned as part of the term of such sentence.

S. 186. The authority may order remission of the sentence after suspension or that the offender ought to undergo the unexpired portion of the sentence.

S. 187. Every case after suspension may be reconsidered.

S. 188. Provision is made for cases in which an offender whose sentence is suspended is sentenced for some other offence.

S. 189. Powers conferred by section 182 and 186 shall be in addition to and not in derogation of the power of mitigation, remission, etc.

S. 190. Effect of suspension and remission on dismissal is mentioned.

Chapter XV lays down provision for making rules.

S. 191. The Central Government has power to make rules for the purpose of carrying into effect the provisions of this Act.

S. 192. The Central Government has power to make regulations.

S. 193. Rules and regulations made under this Act shall be published in the Gazette.

S. 194. The Acts and ordinances mentioned in the Schedule are repealed.

Chapter XVI makes Transitory provisions.

Sections 195 and 196 define and lay down power of 'British Officers'.

The Schedule mentions the Indian Army Act, 1911, the Indian Army (Suspension of Sentences) Act, 1920, the Active Service Ordinance, 1941, the Prisoners of War (Forfeiture of Emoluments) Ordinance, 1943, The Active Service (Amendment) Ordinance, 1946.

47. The Insurance (Amendment) Act.— S. 2 amends sub-section (2) of section 1 of the Insurance Act and extends it to the whole of India except the State of Jammu and Kashmir.

S. 3. Amends section 2 of the Act and substitutes many new definitions of many important terms and phrases such as "approved security", "auditor", "banking company", "chief agent", "investing company", "life insurance business", etc., and inserts a few new definitions of terms such as "marine insurance business", etc.

S. 4. substitutes "Controller" for "Superintendent of Insurance" in the Act.

S. 5. Two new sections, namely 2A and 2B are inserted in Part I of the Act and rules of Construction in applying the Act to Part B States and provision for appointment of "Controller of Insurance", are laid down.

S. 6. A new section 2C in Part II of the Act is inserted. It lays down rules as regards prohibition of Transaction of insurance business by certain persons.

S. 9. Inserts new sections 6A, 6B and 6C in the Act. Section 6A lays down rules in details as to the requirements as to capital structure and voting rights and maintenance of registers of beneficial owners of shares. Section 6B makes provision for securing compliance with requirements relating to capital structure laid down in section 6A. Section 6C lays down procedure for converting a company limited by share into a company limited by guarantee.

Ss. 11 and 12. Amend section 11 of the Act, with respect to the furnishing of statements and accounts to the Controller.

S. 13. Amends section 13 of the Act, and lays down provisions as regards the investigation to be made.

S. 16. Substitutes a new section for section 27 with respect to investment of assets.

S. 17. Inserts a new section 27A in the Act and makes further provision regarding investments. The insurer must invest the controlled fund as mentioned in the section. Circumstances under which investment is allowed to be made otherwise than in an approved investment are mentioned. Explanation of the term "Controlled Fund" is also given.

S. 18. Amends section 28 of the Act and inserts a new sub-section after sub-section (2). It lays down that an insurer shall submit along with returns a certificate from a Company in which the assets are deposited to the effect that the securities are held free from any encumbrance. The insurer has also to submit a statement with respect to the 'controlled fund'.

S. 19. Inserts a new section 28A with respect to a return of investment relating to controlled fund and changes therein. Every insurer shall, every year within thrity-one days from the beginning of the year submit to the Controller a return in the prescribed form showing the investment made and the changes that occurred in the investment.

S. 20. Makes minor amendments in section 29 of the Act and adds 4 new sub-sections, namely sub-sections 3, 4, 5 and 6 relating to granting of loan by an insurer.

S. 22. Substitutes a new sub-section after sub-section (2) of section 31 of the Act.

S. 23. Inserts new sections 31A and 31B in the Act. Section 31A lays down provisions relating to managers. No insurer shall be managed by a company or a firm, etc. No Manager shall be entitled to nominate a successor to his office. No person shall have any right to any compensation for any loss incurred by reason of the operation of any of this provision. Section 31B lays down that the Central Government has power to restrict payment of excessive remuneration whether by way of commission or otherwise by an insurer. Every insurer shall submit to the Controller a statement of remuneration.

S. 24. Inserts a new section 32 A. It prohibits appointment of common officers for two insurers. But such an appointment may be allowed by the Central Government for the purposes of amalgamation. In certain cases the Manager must be whole-time employee of the insurer.

S. 25. Substitutes a new section 33 in place of sections 33 and 34. Section 33 lays down provisions as regards powers of investigation. The Central Government may order investigation of an insurer at any time and it shall be the duty of the Manager to produce all relevant books. On receipt of the report the Central Government may take necessary action.

S. 31. Inserts new sections 40A to 40C in the Act.

Section 40. Alays down limitation of expenditure on commission which cannot exceed two per cent in case of the policy granting an immediate annuity, seven and half per cent on deferred annuity and in other cases thirty-five per cent of the first year's premium. In case of general insurance, it cannot exceed fifteen per cent and marine insurance ten per cent, etc. Any one who contravenes these provisions shall be punishable with fine which may extend to one hundred rupees. Section 40B lays down limitations on expenses of management in life insurance business. A statement of expenses must be furnished to Controller. If the expenses in a particular year exceed the limits, the case will be considered by the Controller after consulting the Executive Committee of the Life Insurance Council. Every insurer must incorporate in the revenue account, a certificate that all expenses of management have been fully debited, etc. Section 40C lays down limitation on expenses of management in general insurance business. The rules are similar to those laid down in section 40B.

S. 32. Amends section 42 of the Act. A licence issued under this section shall remain in force for a period of three years only. Rules about issue of licence are laid down.

S. 33. Inserts new sections 42A, 42B and 42C in the Act. Section 42A lays down rules about registration of principal agents, chief agent and special agents. A certificate issued shall be valid for twelve months from the date of issue but shall be renewed from year to year on an application and a certificate from the insurer. A duplicate certificate may be issued to replace a lost certificate. An unauthorised person acting as an agent shall be punishable with fine. Section 42B lays down rules for regulation of employment of principal agents. New principal agents can be appointed only in presidency towns. Every principal agent shall file with the Insurer a full list of insurance agents employed by him certified copies of such contracts shall be filed with the "Controller". Any dispute as to whether a person is or is not a principal agent shall be decided by the Controller. Section 42C lays down regulation about employment of chief agents and special agents. All contracts in this behalf must be in writing. No chief agent can procure business in any area which is outside his jurisdiction. Within sixty days of the commencement of this Act every chief agent shall file a full list of insurance agents employed by him with all the particulars. Certified copies of the contracts entered into by Chief agents or the special agents shall be furnished to the Controller. Every contract between an insurer and a person acting on behalf of such an insurer for employing insurance agents, which is subsisting on such commencement shall terminate after the expiration of ten years from such commencement. Such contracts however may be modified so as to bring into conformity with this list. A register showing names and addresses of all chief agents, shall be maintained by every insurer.

S. 34. Substitutes a new section for Section 44 of the Act. It prohibits cessation of payments of commission to an insurance agent, notwithstanding anything contained in the contract, except for fraud. The proviso to the section mentions exceptions to the rule.

S. 35. Inserts a new Section 44A. It empowers the Controller to call for information for the purpose of ensuring compliance with the provisions of Sections 40A, 40B, 40C, 42B and 42C.

S. 36. Amends Section 47 of the Act.

S. 37. Inserts a new section 47A. It lays down provisions as regards claims on small life insurance policies. Disputes with respect to policies where the sum does not exceed two thousand rupees may be referred to the Controller by the claimant. The decision of the Controller shall be final.

S. 40. Inserts new Sections 48B and 48C.

Section 48B makes some further provisions regarding directors. There shall not be common directors for specified insurers. The Central Government may make exceptions to this rule. Section 48C provides for appointments of additional directors.

S. 42. Inserts new Sections 52A to 52G. This group of sections deals with management by an Administrator. Section 52A mentions circumstances under which an Administrator for management of insurance business may be appointed. The Controller may issue directions to the Administrator. Section 52B lays down powers and duties of the Administrator. Section 52C empowers the Administrator to cancel contracts and agreements (other than a policy) if necessary. Sections 52D lays down rules for the termination of appointment of Administrator. Section 52E states that an order of the Central Government, appointing an administrator shall be final. Section 52F lays down that penalty for withholding documents or property from Administrator may lead to imprisonment for six months or one thousand rupees fine or both.. Sections 52G states that no suit can lie either against the Administrator or the Central Government for any action taken under Sections 52A to 52D.

S. 45. Inserts a group of new Sections 64A to 64T, dealing with Insurance Association of India, Councils of the Association and Committee thereof. S. 64A. A statutory body called "Insurance Association of India" is created and all insurers become members of this body. It may have associate members too. S. 64B. It will be the duty of the Controller to enter the names of all the members in the Register. Name of any insurer who ceases to carry on the business of insurance shall be removed from the register. S. 64C. There shall be two councils of the Insurance Association of India; the Life Insurance council and the General Insurance Council. S. 64D. Members of the Association may act through agents. S. 64E. The authorities of the council shall be the Executive Committees. Tariff Committees, etc. S. 64F. Lays down composition of the Executive Committee. The Committee shall consist of representatives of the members of the Association, Officials and non-Officials, nominated by the Central Government. The Secretaries of the Committee shall be officials nominated by the Central Government. 64G. Rules about resignation and filling of casual vacancies are laid down. S. 64H. Rules about duration and dissolution of Executive Committees are provided. S. 64I. The Executive Committee has power to hold examinations for

insurance agents, with the approval of the Central Government. S. 64J. The functions of the Executive Committee of the Life Insurance Council are mentioned. S. 64K. The Executive Committee may advise in controlling expenses, the Controller, who may issue to the insurers such directions as he deems necessary. Directions issued by the Controller must be respected by every insurer. S. 64L. Functions of the Executive Committee of General Insurance Council are mentioned. S. 64M. Executive Committee of General Insurance Council may advise the Controller in fixing the limits of expenditure to be incurred by any insurer. The Controller may warn the guilty insurer. S. 64N. The Executive Committees of the two councils have power to act together in the cases specified by the Central Government. S. 64O. The General Insurance Council has power to regulate rates of insurance. Tariff Committee has the power of taking action against defaulting insurers. S. 64P. Makes provision for appointment of Regional Councils, which shall perform such functions as may be delegated to them by General Insurance Council. S. 64Q. Lays down function Regional Councils. S. 64R. Lays down general powers of Life Insurance Council and General Insurance Council. S. 64S. The Central Government may exercise such powers as are necessary for bringing the Councils and the Committees of the Councils into effective existence. S. 64T. The Central Government may exempt any insurer from the operation of all or any of the provisions of this Part.

S. 47. Inserts a new Section 65A in the Act. It prohibits transaction of insurance business by provident societies other than public companies or co-operative societies.

S. 59. Inserts a new Section 110C. This section empowers the Controller to call for information from any insurer.

S. 65. Inserts a new schedule called "Sixth Schedule" and the old Sixth Schedule shall be renumbered as "Seventh Schedule." Part A of the Sixth Schedule contains terms deemed to be included in every contract between an insurer carrying on general insurance business and a principal agent. Part B lays down the terms deemed to be included in every contract between an insurer carrying on life insurance business and a chief agent. Part C states the terms deemed to be included in every contract between an insurer carrying on life insurance business and a special agent or between a chief agent and a special agent.

S. 66. Lays down the extent of repeals and savings. The Insurance (Amendment) ordinance (VI of 1950) is repealed.

48. The Industrial Disputes (Appellate Tribunal) Act.—This Act establishes an Appellate Tribunal in relation to industrial disputes and for certain matters incidental thereto.

S. 2. Lays down definition of certain terms.

Chapter II lays down provisions for the Labour Appellate Tribunal, its constitution and functions.

S. 4. The Central Government may constitute a Labour Appellate Tribunal.

S. 5. The Tribunal shall have a chairman and other members. Appointments in some cases shall be made in consultation with the Supreme Court. The term of office shall be five years and the retirement age is sixty-five years.

S. 6. The Central Government shall determine the seat of the Tribunal.

S. 7. The Tribunal shall have jurisdiction over Industrial Tribunals in those cases where a question of law is involved. A list of subjects such as wages, bonus or travelling allowance, etc. is given. An appeal against an award in such cases shall lie to the Tribunal.

S. 8. Benches of the Tribunal shall consist of not less than two members.

S. 9. Powers of the Tribunal are the same as those of a Civil Court. The Tribunal may point one or more persons as assessors to advise in any proceedings. The Tribunal may confirm, vary or reverse the award or decision. Majority of opinion shall prevail. In absence of majority the President of the Bench shall refer points on which there is difference of opinion to the Chairman. A copy of the decision shall be sent to the Government and the Industrial Tribunal concerned. The procedure shall be the one provided by the Civil Procedure Code so far as it is not inconsistent with the provisions of the Act.

S. 10. The period of limitation is 30 days.

S. 11. The appeal shall be in the form of a memorandum.

S. 12. The appeal may be presented by the party or by the appropriate Government.

S. 13. The Central Government or the appropriate Government have a right to appear before the Tribunal.

S. 14. The Tribunal may order stay of the implementation of award or decision pending the disposal of the appeal.

S. 15. The decision of the Tribunal shall be enforceable on the expiry of thirty days from the date of its pronouncement. However the appropriate Government may reject or modify its decision.

S. 16. When the Appellate Tribunal modifies the decision of any industrial Tribunal, the decision of the former shall be substituted for that of the latter.

S. 17. Rules about commencement and conclusion of appeal are laid down.

Chapter III lays down certain provisions relating to industrial tribunals set up under other laws.

S. 18. Rules about commencement of award or decision of industrial tribunal are laid down.

S. 19. In computing the period of operation of any award, the period during which its implementation is stayed shall be excluded.

S. 20. Any money due from an employer under an award may be recovered as arrears of land revenue. A Commissioner may be appointed for the purposes of computing money value of a benefit under an award.

S. 21. Every Industrial Tribunal shall maintain a record of proceedings before it in those cases where an appeal lies. Chapter IV includes miscellaneous provisions.

S. 22. Conditions of service of an employee shall remain unchanged during the period of thirty days allowed for filing an appeal.

S. 23. If conditions are changed, the aggrieved party may complain to the Appellate Tribunal.

Sections 24 and 25. Strikes and lock-outs are prohibited during the period of thirty days and the pendency of an appeal before the Tribunal. Such a strike will be illegal.

S. 26. If an illegal strike is resorted to the workmen shall be punished. So also the employer if there is an illegal lock-out.

S. 27. Penalty for instigation shall be imprisonment for six months or Rs.1,000 fine.

S. 28. Penalty for giving financial aid to such a strike shall be imprisonment for six months and/or fine.

S. 29. Provision is made for penalty for other offences.

S. 30. Powers of the Appellate Tribunal in relation to contempts are enumerated.

S. 31. If an offence is committed by a Company all persons who are responsible for the management of the same shall be presumed to be guilty.

S. 32. Cognizance of an offence under this Act can be taken only on a complaint from the appropriate Government.

S. 33. A workman may be represented by an officer of a registered Trade union. An employer by an officer of his association. Legal practitioners may represent the party with the consent of the other party and the leave of the Court.

S. 34. The Industrial Disputes Act is amended.

S. 35. The Central Government has power to make rules. The schedule lays down the details of the amendments to the Industrial Disputes Act 1947.

49. The Contingency Fund of India Act.—As required by Articles 267 (1) and 283 (1) of the Constitution of India, the Indian Parliament passed an Act for the establishment and maintenance of Contingency Fund.

S. 1. Contingency Fund of India shall be established. A sum of fifteen crores of rupees shall be paid into it from the Consolidated Fund of India.

S. 3. The custody of the Fund shall be with the Secretary to the Finance Ministry and advances shall be made only under the authority of Parliament.

S. 4. The Central Government have power to make rules.

50. The Preventive Detention (Amendment) Act.—Section 14 of the Preventive Detention Act was declared by the Supreme Court to be *ultra vires* the Constitution. An ordinance (XIX of 1950) was promulgated to delete section 14 and make some other minor amendments. This Act replaces the Ordinance.

S. 2. In sub-section (2) of the Act the words 'additional district Magistrates specially empowered in this behalf' and "in the State of Hyderabad, Civil Administrators" shall be added.

S. 3. Section 14 of the said Act is omitted.

S. 4. The ordinance XIX of 1950 is repealed.

51. The Census (Amendment) Act.—The Census Act 1948 did not extend to the States of Travancore-Cochin, Hyderabad, Mysore and Jammu and Kashmir. The Act repeals the local Acts in certain States and extends the Census Act to all the above mentioned States. It has altogether five sections.

52. The Essential Supplies (Temporary Powers) Amendment Act.—The Korean war and allied factors resulted in sudden rise of prices and a tendency to hoard foodgrains. This Act gives adequate powers to the Government to punish the offenders. It also extends the original Act to the States mentioned in Part B of the Constitution. It contains altogether 10 sections. These sections introduce necessary amendments in the relevant sections of the original Act. S. 7 provides for penalties. The imprisonment may extend to three years.

53. The Cantonment Laws (Extension and Amendment) Act.—Armed forces of the Union were stationed in Cantonments within Part B States. But the Cantonment Acts did not apply to these States. This Act extends the old Acts to Part B States. The elections to the Cantonment Boards were held in abeyance on account of some administrative difficulties. Hence the life of the existing Boards is extended and provision is made for preparation of electoral rolls. The Act contains 10 sections all of which introduce necessary amendments in the old Acts. This Act replaces an ordinance of a similar nature.

54. Finance Laws (Amendment) Act.—The Finance Act 1949 used a qualifying phrase "entitled to a share on partition" while exempting a joint Hindu family from income tax if the total income did not exceed Rs. 5,000. In 1950 this limit was raised to Rs. 7,200. The benefit of the exemption could be claimed even if the family consisted of a husband, wife and a minor son. Because wife according to Hindu law is entitled to a share on partition. However this was not the intention of the Legislature. This Act consists of only three sections. It removes the defects pointed above.

55. The Influx from Pakistan (Control) Amendment Act.—The Influx from Pakistan (Control) Act 1949 extends to the whole of India except the State of Hyderabad. There was no parallel legislation in that State. Hence an Ordinance was promulgated on the 24th July 1950. The present Act replaces that Ordinance. It has got altogether five sections which amend the relevant sections of the Act of 1949. The offences punishable under the Act of 1949 may be tried not only at the place where the offence was committed but also at the place where the accused person may be found.

56. The Minimum Wages (Amendment) Act.—Under the Minimum Wages Act 1948, it was obligatory upon appropriate Governments to fix minimum rates of wages before the 15th March 1950. This however was not done by many Governments. A few of them fixed minimum wages after the 15th March 1950. This was alleged to be bad in law. Hence an Ordinance was promulgated to legalise the steps taken. This Act replaces the Ordinance. It contains only four sections.

S. 3 validates certain action taken under that Act.

S. 4 repeals Ordinances XVII of 1950.

57. The Naval Forces (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act.—Some of the regulations and executive instructions or orders to which, members of the Armed Forces were subject before the 26th January 1950 had the effect of contravening some of the provisions of the Constitution relating to fundamental rights. Hence the Armed Forces Ordinance was promulgated and certain of the fundamental rights were abrogated or restricted in their application to the Armed Forces. Relevant provisions of the Ordinance were included in the Army and the Air Force Acts. As regards Navy, an ordinance called "The Naval Forces (Miscellaneous Provisions) Ordinance (XXI of 1950) was promulgated on the 23rd July 1950. This Act replaces the Ordinance. It has only five sections.

S. 2. As a general rule, no female shall be eligible for enrolment or appointment in the Naval Forces.

S. 3. The Central Government may by notification in the official Gazette modify certain fundamental rights in their application to members of the Naval Forces.

S. 4. Existing rules and regulations are continued.

S. 5. Ordinance XXI of 1950 is repealed.

58. The Dentists (Amendment) Act.—Under the Dentists Act 1948, it was necessary for persons who desired to hold some posts or practise dentistry to be registered in Part A of the register. The time limit laid down for registration was inadequate. Hence an Ordinance was promulgated to extend the time limit with a view to achieving the object and also to validating certain appointments held by non-registered persons. This Act replaces the Ordinance. It has seven sections only.

S. 5 validates certain appointments already made.

S. 6. Bar to proceedings is mentioned.

S. 7. The Ordinance XVI of 1950 is repealed.

59. The Salaries of Ministers (Amendment) Act.—The Salaries of Ministers Act 1947 provided only for the salaries, allowances and privileges of Cabinet Ministers. Subsequently however Ministers of State and Deputy Ministers were appointed.

An ordinance (XX of 1950) was promulgated to make the necessary provision. The Act replaces that Ordinance. It has only five sections.

S. 3 substitutes a new section for the section 3 in the Act. Each Minister of State will get a salary of three thousand rupees per mensem, while each Deputy Minister will receive two thousand rupees per mensem.

S. 5. Ordinance XX of 1950 is repealed.

60. The Appropriation (No. 3) Act.—The Act makes provision for the appropriation out of the Consolidated Fund of India of the moneys required to meet the Supplementary expenditure charged on the Consolidated Fund of India and the grants made by Parliament for expenditure of the Central Government excluding Railways for 1950-51. It has three Sections and one Schedule.

S. 2 authorises the issue of the sum of fifteen crores, twenty-seven lakhs and sixty thousand rupees for defraying the several charges mentioned in the Schedule.

S. 3. The sum shall be appropriated for the purposes expressed in the Schedule.

The Schedule mentions Indian Posts and Telegraphs Department, Cabinet, Ministry of Home Affairs and Transfer to Contingency Fund of India.

61. The Voluntary Surrender of Salaries (Exemption from Taxation) Act.—This Act replaces Ordinance No. XV of 1950. It provides for exemption in respect of salary voluntarily foregone in the public interest by a person whose salary is fixed under law.

S. 2. No income-tax or super tax shall be payable in respect of the salary, which is surrendered voluntarily in the public interest either by the President, the Ministers, the Speaker and the Deputy Speaker, Judges of the Supreme Court and the High Courts or the Governors, etc.

S. 3. Ordinance XV of 1950 is repealed.

62. The Allianz and Stuttgarter Life Insurance Bank (Transfer) Act.—The Allianz and Stuttgarter Life Insurance Bank Limited, Delhi was a branch of pre-war German firm, bearing the same name. At the outbreak of the second world war the property of the branch was vested in the Custodian of Enemy Property. Messrs. A.F.Fergusson and Company, Chartered Accountants were authorised to carry on the business of the branch with a direction not to effect any new contract. It meant progressive increase in the cost of administration. Hence 20 per cent cut in the policy payments was effected. The Government were advised to merge the business of the bank, with that of some other sound insurer. The United India Life Insurance Company Limited, Madras, accept the merger and also restored retrospectively the cut of 20 per cent. The Act makes the necessary provisions.

S. 2 lays down definitions.

S. 3 states that the assets and liabilities of the transferor company shall be transferred to the transferee company.

S. 4 lays down effect of transfer of assets and liabilities to transferee Company. All old contracts shall continue to be valid.

S. 5. All contracts of agency entered into upto the 31st day of July 1942 shall be deemed to be terminated with effect from that date. No compensation shall be paid for such termination.

S. 6. The Central Government is authorised to make necessary supplementary, incidental or consequential provisions.

S. 7. The Controller of Insurance may give necessary directions to the Company for removing any difficulty that might arise.

S. 8 repeals Ordinance XXIV of 1950.

The first Schedule contains terms and conditions relating to the transfer of the business of the Transferor Company. The Second Schedule contains provision for repeals.

63. The Ajmer Tenancy and Land Records (Amendment) Act.—Rules were to be framed for implementing the provisions of section 204 of the Ajmer Tenancy and Land Records Act, 1950. But due to the complexity involved in making these rules, they were not made. Hence the period of limitation mentioned under section 204 is extended from six months to nine months.

S. 2 amends section 203 of the Act, and makes provision for levy of fee in respect of any application for the grant of any relief under this Act.

S. 3 extends the period of limitation.

S. 4 refers to repeals and savings.

64. The Road Transport Corporation Act.—The Road Transport Corporation Act 1948 (XXXII of 1948) was enacted with a view to enabling the Provincial Governments to establish Road Transport Corporations. This Act was found to be defective as some sections (sections 3(2), 4 and 5) were *ultra vires* of the Government of India Act. Creation of statutory Transport Corporations was *ultra vires* the powers of Provincial Legislatures. This Act removes the above mentioned defects and enables the State Governments to set up transport Corporations with the object of providing efficient, adequate, economical and properly co-ordinated system of road transport service.

S. 2 lays down definitions.

Chapter II lays down provisions about Road Transport Corporations.

S. 3. State Governments may by notification establish a Road Transport Corporation for the whole or any part of the State.

S. 4. Every corporation shall have a perpetual succession and a common seal.

S. 5 A Corporation shall consist of a Chairman and other members. Rules made under this Act shall provide for the representation both of the Central and the State Governments.

S. 6 lays down disqualifications for being chosen as or for being a member of a Corporation.

S. 7. The Chairman or a member may resign his office.

S. 8. Circumstances under which a Chairman or a member may be removed from office, are mentioned.

S. 9. Vacancies amongst members or defect in the Constitution will not invalidate acts or proceedings of a Corporation.

S. 10. A Corporation may associate with itself any person whose assistance or advice it may desire.

S. 11. Rules about meetings of Corporation are laid down.

It must meet at least once in every three months.

S. 12. A Corporation may by resolution appoint committees or delegate its functions to any Committee or the Chairman, etc.

S. 13. Rules about authentication of orders and other instruments of Corporation are laid down.

S. 14. A Corporation shall have a General Manager or Chief Executive Officer and a Chief Accounts Officer.

S. 15. The General Manager or the Chief Executive Officer shall be the executive head. The Accounts Officer shall have a right to record his views on every proposal involving expenditure.

S. 16. A person having either directly or indirectly interest in any contract by or on behalf of a Corporation cannot be a servant of the Corporation.

S. 17. The State Government may appoint an Advisory Council or Councils.

Chapter III deals with powers and duties of Corporation.

S. 18. A Corporation shall secure an efficient, economical and properly co-ordinated system of road transport services.

S. 19. A Corporation shall have power to operate road transport service and provide for its employees suitable conditions of service. It may manufacture, purchase, etc., rolling stock, vehicles, plants, etc. It may acquire and hold property, prepare schemes for the acquisition of any undertaking in the State, purchase or take on lease any building, authorise disposal of scrap vehicles, etc. In certain cases a Corporation must secure the previous approval of the State Government.

S. 20. If a Corporation considers it to be expedient in the public interest to extend the operation of any of its road transport to another State, it may with the permission of the State Government negotiate with the Government of the other State, in that behalf.

S. 21. A Corporation may carry mails, if so required by the Central Government, at the specified rates.

Chapter IV lays down rules about finances, accounts and audit.

S. 22. A Corporation must act on business principles.

S. 23. Capital of a Corporation may be provided by the Central Government and the State Government or may be raised by the Corporation by issue of shares. Such shares shall not be transferable except in accordance with rules made under this Act.

S. 24. Additional capital may be raised by the issue of new shares, with the previous sanction of the State Government.

S. 25. The shares of a Corporation shall be guaranteed by the State Government.

S. 26. A corporation may with the previous approval of the State Government borrow money for raising working capital.

S. 27. Every corporation shall have its own fund, which may be deposited in the Reserve Bank of India or invested in securities.

S. 28. A Corporation shall pay interest on capital and dividend on shares.

S. 29. A Corporation shall make provision for depreciation, reserve or other funds.

S. 30. Net profits may be utilised for amenities to the passengers, welfare of labour and other approved purposes. The balance shall be handed over to the State Government for road development.

S. 31. A Corporation has power to spend for authorised purposes.

S. 32. Every corporation shall prepare a budget for every financial year and submit to the State Government.

S. 33. Every corporation shall cause to be maintained books of accounts which will be audited by an auditor appointed by the State Government.

Chapter V lays down miscellaneous provisions.

S. 34. The State Government may issue general instructions to the Corporation relating to recruitment, conditions of service, etc.

S. 35. Every corporation shall furnish to the State Governments such returns, statistics, etc. as may be required by the State Government.

S. 36. The State Government may order inquiry into all or any of the activities of the Corporation, which shall give all facilities to such person for proper conduct of inquiries.

S. 37. If after inquiry the State Government deems it necessary, it may authorise any person to take over the Corporation such part of undertaking as may be specified. Such person shall be paid from the fund of the Corporation.

S. 38. The State Government may with the previous approval of the Central Government supersede a Corporation if it has abused its powers or failed to perform its duty. Before issuing a notification in this behalf reasonable time will be given to the Corporation to defend itself. Effect of supersession is mentioned in detail.

S. 39. A Corporation can be placed in liquidation only by an order of the State Government. No such order can be made without the previous approval of the Central Government. After liquidation the assets of the Company, after meeting all liabilities shall be divided among the Central and the State Government and such other parties as may be specified.

S. 40. A corporation shall pay compensation whenever it acquires the whole or any part of undertaking. Rules about payment of compensation are laid down.

S. 41. A Corporation shall be deemed to be a local authority within the meaning of the Motor Vehicles Act. A Corporation must make provision for third party risks.

S. 42. Officer of a Corporation has power to enter upon any land or premises between sunrise and sunset, for the purposes of survey, etc., with the previous permission of the district magistrate.

S. 43. Members, officers and servants of a Corporation shall be deemed to be public servants.

S. 44. The State Government has power to make rules.

S. 45. A Corporation may with the previous sanction of the State Government make regulations not inconsistent with this Act and the rules.

S. 46. Penalty for breach of rules may be fine of five hundred rupees, if provided by the State Government by rules.

S. 47. Special provisions relating to Bombay are laid down. The body known as the Bombay State Road Transport Corporation and the Board thereof referred to in the notification No. 1780/5 dated the 16th November 1949 shall be deemed for all purposes to have been validly constituted. All actions, transactions shall be deemed to be valid. No suit or other legal proceedings shall lie against the Government of Bombay in respect of any action already taken on the establishment of a Corporation under section 3 in the State of Bombay, the existing Corporation and Board shall be deemed to be dissolved and all property and assets vesting in the existing Corporation shall vest in the new Corporation. All rights, liabilities and obligations shall also be deemed to be transferred.

S. 48. The Road Transport Corporations' Act 1948 is repealed.

65. The Ajmer Rural Boards and Municipalities (Amendment) Act.—The Act provides for the use of the electoral roll prepared for election to Parliament, for the election to local bodies in Ajmer. This saves expenditure. It also removes the stipulation that not less than two-thirds of the members of a board shall be persons by whom the local rate is payable. It has only four sections.

66. The Administration of Evacuee Property (Amendment) Act.—This amending Act has only three sections. The Administration of Evacuee Property Act of 1950 did not provide for repeal of Hyderabad Regulation relating to the administration of Evacuee property in that State. This anomaly is rectified by this Act by extending the scope of section 58 of the Act. The Hyderabad Regulation is repealed with retrospective effect and all actions taken thereunder are saved.

67. The Cooch-Behar (Assimilation of Laws) Act.—The former State of Cooch-Behar was merged into West Bengal on the 1st of January 1950. But no provision was made for application of laws of India to this merged State. This Act contains four sections only. It extends all laws that were in force in West Bengal to Cooch-Behar and repeals the laws of Cooch-Behar that were not in force in the rest of West Bengal. It enables the Central Government to remove any difficulty that might arise on account of this assimilation.

68. The Displaced Persons (Institution of Suits and Legal Proceedings) Amendment Act.—This Act consists of seven sections. It extends the period of limitation in respect of suits to be filed by displaced persons, upto the 31st March 1952. It amends two other earlier Acts, namely the Displaced Persons (Institution of Suits) Act of 1948 and the Displaced Persons (Legal Proceedings) Act of 1949, with a view to enabling a displaced debtor to have all relief to which he would be entitled under the Act 1949.

69. The Indian Tariff (Fourth Amendment) Act.—After the devaluation of the rupee in September 1949, it became necessary to impose new export duties and enhance some of the existing ones in view of the disparity between Indian and World prices. The Korean war resulted in a further disparity. In order that this disparity may not inflate the high level of prices and that the maintenance of control over the price of commodities is not made difficult by higher prices offered by foreign buyers, two Ordinances were promulgated. This Act replaces those Ordinances. It secures the continuation of levy of duties on raw wool, enhances further the duty on hessian, and arms the Government with powers to impose similar duties in case of commodities not already subject to export duties and to enhance them if necessary. It has altogether five sections. Ordinances (XXX of 1950) and (XXXII of 1952) are repealed.

70. The Supply and Prices of Goods Act.—The Supply and Prices of Goods Ordinance (XXVI of 1950) was promulgated on the 2nd September to provide in pursuance of a resolution under article 249 of the Constitution, for the control of prices of certain goods and the supply and distribution thereof. This Act incorporates the provisions of the Ordinance with slight modifications.

S. 2 lays down certain definitions.

S. 3. This Act applies to the goods specified in the Schedule and to the goods specified by the Central Government.

S. 4. The Central Government may fix maximum prices and maximum quantities which may be held or sold.

S. 5 lays down restrictions on possession and sale of goods by dealers and producers whose maximum is fixed under Section 4. Any one contravening these restrictions shall be punished under Section 14.

S. 6 lays down general limitations of quantity which may be possessed at any time by any person other than a dealer or producer.

S. 7. It is the duty of every person to declare possession of excess stocks, to the Central Government.

S. 8. A dealer who even when he has sufficient stocks either refuses to sell the goods or offers to sell subject to conditions, will be guilty under this Act, provided he cannot avail of the legal defence mentioned in the Section.

S. 9. Every dealer must give cash memorandum at the time of sale. The Central Government may exempt specified areas, classes of dealers, etc. from the operation of this section.

S. 10. The Central Government may direct producers or dealers to mark sale prices on goods intended for sale. Price list must be exhibited if directed. No dealer shall destroy or efface any label or mark affixed to any goods.

S. 11. Every dealer or producer must state prices separately on composite offers.

S. 12. No dealer shall keep his shop closed with the intention of avoiding regular sale.

S. 13. The Central Government may regulate by order production and distribution of goods.

S. 14. Any person who contravenes the provisions of this Act shall be punishable with imprisonment which may extend to three years or with fine or with both. The goods with respect to which the offence is committed may be forfeited by the order of the Court.

S. 15. If the offence is committed by a Corporation, every person in charge of that body during that period shall be deemed to have committed the offence. The proviso states an exception to the rule. In some cases directors, managers, etc. shall also be liable.

S. 16. The Central Government may authorise an officer, not below the rank of an inspector of police to enter and search any premises and seize any goods in respect of which he has reason to believe that an offence under this Act has been committed. A person who obstructs such an officer may be sentenced to six months imprisonment.

S. 17 lays down procedure to be followed for offences under this Act.

S. 18. Offences under this Act may be tried summarily. Rules as regards trials by Presidency Magistrates are laid down.

S. 19. The Central Government may direct any dealer or producer to keep such goods, accounts and other records as it thinks necessary. Such books must be produced before an authorised person. Necessary information must also be supplied.

S. 20. No information with respect to any business shall without the consent of the person concerned be disclosed otherwise than in connection with the execution of this Act.

S. 21. The Central Government may exempt any person or goods etc. from the provisions of this Act.

S. 22. The Central Government may delegate its powers under this Act to any officer or State Governments.

S. 23. The Central Government may issue directions to State Governments.

S. 24. There cannot be any legal proceedings against a man for anything done in good faith.

S. 25. The provisions of this Act are in addition to other laws that might be in force.

S. 26. The Central Government may make rules for carrying out the objects of the Act.

S. 27. The Ordinance XXVI of 1950 is repealed.

The Schedule mentions the goods to which this Act applies. They are, non-ferrous metals; bicycles; cycle-tyres and tubes; electric bulbs, caustic soda, soda ash, tanning materials, raw rubber; casein and infant goods.

71. The Indian Income Tax (Amendment) Act.—This Act replaces the Indian Income-tax (Amendment) Ordinances 1950. It also provides with effect from the assessment year 1951-52 for treating a moiety of the aggregate amount of Municipal or other local taxes levied by a local authority in respect of the property as the tenant's burden which would be taken into account in determining the annual letting value on the basis of the full rent payable by the tenant.

S. 3 states that section 2 will not be applicable in certain cases.

S. 4. Special provision for revision in certain cases is made.

S. 5 states that a moiety of the aggregate local taxes should be treated as tenants liability, up to a limit of twelve and a half per cent of the amount of the annual value.

Detail provision in this behalf is made in the section.

S. 6 repeals Ordinance XXVIII of 1950.

72. The Essential Supplies (Temporary Powers) Amendment Act.—This Act has only three sections. It amends section 3 of the Essential Supplies (Temporary Powers) Act 1946. The amendment is with respect to the procedure to be followed in issuing orders under section 3. If the order is of general nature, it will be notified in the Official Gazette. If it affects an individual person it will be delivered to that person or affixed on the outer door of the premises. The Act repeals the Essential Supplies (Temporary Powers) Amendment Ordinance (XXXI of 1950).

73. The Representation of the People (Amendment) Act.—This Act amends the Representation of the People Act of 1950. The amendment lays down the manner of filling seats in the Council of States to be filled by the representatives of Part C States.

S. 2 amends the long title of the Act.

S. 3 amends section 2 of the Act and lays down definition of " Council of States Constituency ".

S. 4 amends section 16 with a view to enabling a person to get his name reinstated on the roll if his disqualification was removed.

S. 5 inserts new section 22A which lays down special provisions with regard to electoral roll first prepared under the Act. Such roll shall be published for the purpose of inviting claims for inclusion in or objection to such roll. After the consideration of the claims and objections such rolls shall be republished. The republished roll shall be deemed to be the electoral roll for the Constituency.

S. 8 inserts a new part IV-A in the Act. This part consists of sections 27A to 27K and lays down the manner of filling seats in the Council of States to be filled by Representatives of Part C States. S. 27A lays down rules for constitution of electoral Colleges for the filling of seats in the Council of States allotted to Part C States. Detail provision is made for each State and a reference is made to the schedule to this Act for that purpose. S. 27B refers to the Council of States constituencies. S. 27C lays down that the President shall determine the constituency in each State, the extent of each constituency and the number of seats allotted to each constituency. S. 27D, lays down procedure as to orders delimiting constituencies. The Election Commission shall submit the proposals to the President after consulting the Advisory Committees. S. 27F lays down that there shall be an electoral roll for every Council of States constituency. S. 27G mentions circumstances under which a person will lose his membership of an electoral college. S. 27H lays down the manner of filling of seats in the Council of States allotted to Part C States. S. 27I lays down special provisions for the filling of the seats in the Council of States allotted to the States of Ajmer and Coorg and the States of Manipur and Tripura. S. 27J, states that the Coorg Legislative Council or the electoral college may elect notwithstanding vacancies, therein. S. 27K. If Parliament has created by law under article 240, for any of the States, other than Bilaspur and Himachal Pradesh, a body to function as a legislature, such legislature shall be the electoral college. Similar rules are laid down separately for Bilaspur and Himachal Pradesh.

S. 10 adds a new Fifth Schedule to the Act. The schedule lays down the number of members in electoral college for each State. They are Ajmer 30, Bhopal 30, Bilaspur and Himachal Pradesh 42, Kutch 30, Manipur 30, Tripura 30 and Vindhya Pradesh 60.

S. 11 repeals Ordinance XXIX of 1950.

74. The Telegraph Wires (Unlawful Possession) Act.—Thefts of copper wires used in telegraph lines have been very frequent. Great difficulties were experienced in bringing the offenders to book in court of law. The copper wires used in telegraph lines are of distinctive gauges *viz.* 150 lbs., 200 lbs. and 300 lbs. per mile. This Act makes unlawful possession of such wires, an offence punishable with imprisonment for five years or with fine or with both and places the burden of proving lawful possession of wires on the accused.

S. 2 lays down definitions.

S. 3. Every person in posession of Telegraph wires shall within six months from the commencement of the Act make a declaration stating the quantity in his possession.

S. 4. Telegraph wires weighing more than ten pounds must be converted into ingots, if they are not sold to prescribed authority.

S. 5 lays down penalty for unlawful possession of telegraphic wires.

S. 6 lays down penalty of contravention of provisions of sections 3 and 4. It may be imprisonment for six months.

S. 7. Cognizance of offences under this Act can be taken only on a complaint from the Central Government.

S. 8. The Central Government may make rules.

75. The Indian Nursing Council (Amendment)Act.—This Act amends the second proviso of sub-Section (3) of Section 10 of the Indian Nursing Council Act, 1947, in order that a qualification granted by an authority in Part B States and recognised on the 31st December 1947 by a Nursing Council in any State to which the Act now extends, may continue to be recognised qualification for the purpose of registration in the State.

S. 2. Amends Section 10 of the Act, with a view to achieving the purpose of this Act.

76. The State Railway Provident Fund (Temporary Provisions) Act.—Under Section 5 of the Provident Fund Act 1925, the provident fund accumulations of a subscriber in the event of his death, become payable to the person nominated by him. In case no nomination exists, the rules of the State Railway Provident Fund provide for the payment to the members of the subscribers family in equal shares. Partition of India resulted in loss of many of the relevant records. Hence this Act authorises the railway administration to make payments to the dependants of the deceased employee in whose case nomination papers are not traced.

S. 2 lays down definitions.

S. 3. This Act shall be applicable notwithstanding any provisions inconsistent therewith contained in the Provident Fund Act.

S. 4. Lays down that in certain cases State Railway provident moneys shall be repaid to the dependants in equal shares if the nomination paper is lost. Detail rules to payments to sons, married daughters, unmarried daughters etc. are laid down.

S. 5. Making of payment authorised by the provisions of this Act shall be a full discharge to the Central Government.

S. 6. A person making a false statement shall be punishable with imprisonment which may extend to three years or with fine or with both.

S. 7. No suit or legal proceeding shall lie against any person for anything done in good faith under the provisions of this Act.

S. 8. The Central Government has power to make rules.

77. The Appropriation (Railways) No. 2 Act.—This Act provides for the appropriation out of Consolidated Fund of India of the money required to meet the supplementary grants made by Parliament for expenditure of the Central Government on railways for 1950-51. It has only three sections and one schedule.

S. 2. Issue of twenty-one crores ninty-five lakhs and ninety-one thousand rupees, is authorised.

S. 3. The sum authorised shall be appropriated for the services and purposes mentioned in the Schedule.

78. The Khaddar (Protection of Name) Act.—The provision of the Khaddar (Name Protection) Act 1934 was not effective to prevent the sale of spurious khadi as genuine khadi. It also did not cover genuine silk and woollen khadi fabrics. This Act enlarges the definition of khadi and khaddar and extends the Act to the whole of India except Jammu and Kashmir.

S. 1. Extends the Act to the whole of India.

S. 2. Lays down that the words " Khaddar " and Khadi shall be deemed to be a trade description.

S. 3. The Khaddar (Name Protection) Act 1934 is repealed.

79. The Appropriation (No. 4) Act.—This Act provides for the appropriation out of the Consolidated Fund of India of the moneys required to meet the supplementary expenditure charged on the Consolidated Fund and grants made by Parliament for expenditure of the Central Government, excluding Railways for 1950-51.

S. 2. Authorises issue of sixty-three crores, ninty-nine lakhs and fifty-six thousand rupees for defraying the charges which will come in course of payment during the year ending on the 31st day of March 1951.

S. 3. Lays down that the authorised sum be paid and applied from and out of the Consolidated Fund of India. The Schedule mentions forty-five services and purposes which include cabinet, Ministry of Law, Police, Agriculture etc.

80. The Coal Mines Provident Fund and Bonus Schemes (Amendment) Act.—This is a minor act introducing minor amendments in the original Act.

S. 2. Amends Section 1 of the Act and extends its application to the States of Hyderabad, Mysore and Travancore-Cochin.

S. 5. Inserts a new Section 11A in the Act. This section gives legal protection of every act done in good faith under the Act or under any scheme framed thereunder.

PROVING OF WILLS

IN India if a person has been appointed executor of the Will of a deceased person, it is always advisable to prove the Will as early as possible. If the Will is in an Indian language it has to be officially translated into English. A petition is then prepared praying for the grant of probate of the Will. All the property left by the deceased has to be disclosed in a schedule to be annexed to the petition. Values must be shown as at the date of the Petition and Probate Fees will be calculated on such value. The Values of immoveable properties are usually assessed at 16⅔ years' purchase on the nett Municipal assessment, in the absence of a report from a competent architect. Unless otherwise prayed for, grant of probate is limited to the Province in which it is granted. In all cases in which it is sought to obtain a grant of probate to have effect throughout India, such grant must be expressly asked for.

Probate Duty in Bombay.—Up to Rs. 1,000—Nil.

For the next Rs. 9,000 (*i.e.* upto Rs. 10,000), 2 per cent.; for the next Rs. 40,000 (*i.e.* upto Rs. 50,000) 3 per cent.; for the next Rs. 50,000 (*i.e.* upto Rs. 1,00,000) 4 per cent; for the next Rs. 1,00,000 (*i.e.* upto Rs. 2,00,000) 4½ per cent; for the next Rs. 50,000 (*i.e.* upto Rs. 2,50,000) 5 per cent; for the next Rs. 50,000 (*i.e.* upto Rs. 3,00,000) 5½ per cent; for the next Rs. 1,00,000 (*i.e.* upto Rs. 4,00,000) 6 per cent; for the next Rs. 1,00,000 (*i.e.* upto Rs. 5,00,000) 6½ per cent.; for amounts exceeding Rs.5,00,000 (on the portion over Rs. 5,00,000) 7 per cent. In addition to this Probate Duty there is, at present, a surcharge of 25 per cent introduced by the Bombay Increase of Court-Fees Act No. XV of 1943.

Exemptions from Probate Duty.—In determining the amount of the value of the estate for the purposes of probate duty the following items are allowed to be deducted:

1. Debts left by the deceased including mortgage encumbrances.

2. The amount of funeral expenses.

3. Property held by the deceased in trust and not beneficially or with general power to confer a beneficial interest.

In addition, there is general exemption for service personnel killed in action or dying on service in certain circumstances.

No probate duty is payable in India on the value of the estate left by the deceased outside India.

Procedure.—The particulars of the property of the deceased and the particulars of all items allowed by law to be deducted have to be shown in separate schedules. It is the practice of the High Court to send a copy of these schedules to the Revenue Authorities and if the properties, particularly immoveable properties, have not been properly valued, the High Court issues a notice to the petitioner requiring him to amend the schedule of property accordingly. In certain cases the Court requires citations to be published and served on such persons as the Court thinks are interested in the question of the grant of probate. If no objection is lodged by any person so interested within the time mentioned in the citation to the effect that nothing should be done in the matter of the petition for probate without notice to the person 'objecting' or to use technical language the 'caveator', and if the Will is shown to have been properly executed, probate is ordered to be granted. If an objection or caveat is filed, the petition for probate is converted into a suit in which the petitioner is plaintiff and the caveator is the defendant.

As probate, however, cannot be granted merely because the parties consent, the Will has to be proved. It is against public policy to enter into an agreement or compromise as to the genuineness or execution of the Will if the effect of such an agreement or compromise is to exclude evidence in proof of the Will.

EFFECT OF PROBATE

Probate has effect over all the property and estate moveable or immoveable of the deceased throughout the State in which the same is granted and is conclusive as to the representative title of the person to whom the probate is granted against all debtors of the deceased and all persons holding property which belongs to the deceased and will afford full indemnity to all debtors paying their debts and all persons delivering up such property to the person to whom such probate is granted. Probate can only be granted to an executor appointed by the Will and the appointment may be express or by necessary implication. Probate cannot be granted to any person who is a minor or is of unsound mind nor to any association of individuals, unless it is a company, which satisfies the conditions prescribed by rules made by the Governor-General in Council in that behalf. Where several executors are appointed probate may be granted to them simultaneously or at different times. If a codicil is discovered after the grant of probate a separate probate of that codicil may be granted to the executor if it in no way repeals the appointment of executors made by the Will. If different executors are appointed by the codicil, probate of the Will will be revoked and a new probate granted of the Will and codicil together. When probate has been granted to several executors and one of them dies, the entire representation of the testator accrues to the surviving executor or executors. Probate of a Will when granted establishes the Will from the death of the testator and renders valid all intermediate acts of the executor as such. When a person appointed an executor has not renounced the executorship, letters of administration will not be granted to any other person until a citation has been issued calling upon the executor to accept or renounce the executorship, but when one or more of several executors have proved the Will, the Court may, on the death of the survivor of those who have proved, grant letters of administration without citing those who have not proved. The renunciation may be made orally in the presence of the Judge or by a writing signed by the person renouncing and when made will preclude him from ever thereafter applying for probate of the Will appointing him executor. If an executor renounces or fails to accept an executorship within the time limited for the acceptance or refusal thereof, the Will may be proved and letters of administration with a copy of the Will annexed may be granted to the person who would be entitled to administration in case of intestacy. No person, who renounces probate of a Will, can, without the leave of the judge take out representation to the deceased in another character.

Probate is necessary in case of Wills of Europeans, East Indians, Armenians, Jews, Parsis and Indian Christians and also in case of Wills of Hindus, Buddhists, Sikhs or Jains, made on or after 1st September 1870, within the territories which at the said date were subject to the undivided Provincial Government of Bengal, or within the local limits of the ordinary original civil jurisdiction of the High Courts of Judicature at Madras and Bombay; or to all such Wills made outside the above specified territories or limits so far as they relate to immoveable property situate within those territories or limits.

Probate is not necessary, in case of Wills of Hindus, Buddhists, Sikhs or Jains not falling in classes specified above or of Wills of Muslim and Khojas.

Articles of Association of most of the joint stock companies contain an article to the effect that the Executor or Administrator of a deceased member who has obtained Probate or Letters of Administration as the case may be or the holder of the Succession Certificate shall be the only person recognised by the Company as having any title to his share. In such cases, the Company validly insists on the production of such legal representation before transfer of the shares of a deceased member whether he is a European, Hindu, Muslim, Parsi or otherwise.

Residuary Legatee.—When no executor has been appointed by a deceased in his Will or when the deceased has appointed an executor who is legally incapable or refuses to act or who has died before the testator or before he has proved the Will or when an executor dies after having proved the Will but before he has administered all the estate of the deceased, a universal or a residuary legatee may be admitted to prove the Will and Letters of Administration with the Will annexed may be granted to him of the whole estate or so much of it as may be unadministered.

After any grant of Probate or Letters of Administration with Will annexed, no other than the person to whom the same may have been granted has the power to sue or prosecute any suit or otherwise act as representative of the deceased until such Probate or Letters of Administration has or have been recalled or revoked.

Small Estates.—In cases where the value of the estate is Rs. 2,000 or less, an Administrator General's Certificate can be obtained. The procedure for obtaining this Certificate is simpler and less expensive. A fee of 3 per cent on the value of the estate is payable. The value of the estate has, however, to be taken as at the date of the death of the deceased. These Certificates are equivalent to Letters of Administration.

PROBATE OF FOREIGN WILLS

When a Will has been proved and deposited in a court of competent jurisdiction situated beyond the limits of the State, whether within or beyond the limits of India, and a properly authenticated copy of the Will is produced, letters of administration may be granted with a copy of such Will annexed, upon a proper application for the purpose being made to the appropriate court within whose jurisdiction such property is situate. It is not the function of the court in India to require evidence of the validity of the Will, if it is recognised as valid by the Court of domicile of the testator.

THE DEFENCE FORCES

THE present army of India originated in the small establishments of guards, known as peons, enrolled for the protection of the factories of the East India Company; but sepoys were first enlisted and disciplined by the French, who appeared in India in 1665.

After the declaration of war with France in 1744 the forces were considerably increased, but this did not prevent the French capturing Madras in 1746. Following the French example, the English raised considerable sepoy forces and largely increased the military establishments. In 1748 Major Stringer Lawrence landed at Fort St. David to command the forces of the Company. The English foothold in India was then precarious and the French under Dupleix were contemplating fresh attacks. It became necessary for the English Company to form a larger military establishment. The new commandant at once set about the organisation and discipline of his small force, and the garrison was given a company formation. This was the beginning of the regular Indian Army of which Lawrence subsequently became Commander-in-Chief.

In 1796 the Indian armies, which had been organised on the Presidency system, were reorganised. The European troops were 13,000 strong and the Indians numbered some 57,000, the infantry being generally formed into 75 regiments of two battalions each.

In 1824, the armies were reorganised, the double-battalion regiments being separated, and the battalions numbered according to the dates they were raised. The Bengal Army was organised in three brigades of horse artillery, five battalions of foot artillery, two regiments of European and 68 of Indian infantry, 8 regiments of regular and 5 of irregular cavalry. The Madras and Bombay armies were constituted on similar lines, though of lesser strength.

In 1857 the East India Company ceased to exist and their army was taken over by the Crown. At this time the army was organised into three armies, *viz.*, Bengal, Bombay and Madras, the total strength being 65,000 British and 140,000 Indian troops.

In 1895 another large reorganisation took place. This was the abolition of the three Armies and the introduction of the command system. Four Commands were formed, *viz.*, Punjab, Bengal, Madras and Bombay.

In 1907, Lord Kitchener considered that consequent on the delegation of administrative powers to Divisional Commanders, retention of such powers by Lieutenant-Generals of Commands led to delay in the dispatch of business. The Command system was therefore abolished and India was divided into two Armies—the Northern and Southern—each under a General Officer who was responsible for the command, inspection and training of the troops, but was given no administrative responsibilities.

Early in the First Great War both Army Commanders took the field and were not replaced until 1916 and 1917, when both had practically the same functions as their predecessors. It was then realised that administration was being unduly centralised at Army Headquarters and the machinery was becoming clogged with unnecessary details. To secure efficiency at A. H. Q., therefore, a certain measure of decentralisation was carried out in 1918. With the alteration of the designation "Army" to "Command" at this time, a considerable increase was made in the administrative staffs of the two Commands, and the General Officers Commanding were given powers to deal with all administrative questions other than those dealing with matters of policy, and new principles of war.

The commands were increased to four in 1920, each under a General Officer Commanding-in-Chief. One of these, namely Western Command, was abolished on the 1st November, 1938, and replaced by an Independent District.

Chatfield Committee

In September, 1938, an announcement was made on behalf of the British Government, that the outcome of the discussions regarding the role of land and air forces in India in relation to the defence problems of India, and the Empire which had been authorised in March of that year, had been considered by the British Government.

The need for early action to place the defence organisation of India on a more satisfactory basis was accepted, and, at the suggestion of the Government of India, an expert body of inquiry known as the Chatfield Committee was appointed by the British Government to visit India.

In the meantime and in the light of the progress made during the discussions that were held in the summer of 1938, the British Government in September, 1938, made certain offers of assistance, subject to approval of Parliament. These were an increase of £500,000 to the annual grant of £1,500,000 which had been paid to the Government of India, since 1933, in aid of India defence expenditure, a capital grant up to £5,000,000 for the re-equipment of certain British and Indian units in India, and the provision of aircraft for the re-equipment of certain squadrons of the Royal Air Force. It was further agreed that four British battalions should be transferred from the Indian to the Imperial establishment.

The following is the substance of the main recommendations of the Chatfield Committee Report:

Modernised Re-equipment.—The Committee reported that in the interests of Indian defence the whole of the army forces in India should be modernised with only such minor variations as would not affect the general level of efficiency. One of the most important features of the modernisation proposals was the mechanisation of the bulk of the cavalry and of the first line transport of a large portion of the infantry with the object of greatly increasing the mobility of the units.

With this end in view the Chatfield Committee recommended that the basis of distribution of the Army in India should be (A) Frontier Defence, (B) Internal Security, (C) Coast Defence, (D) External Defence Troops.

Supply of Munitions.—The principle that India should as far as possible be made in all major respects self-sufficient in munitions in time of war was accepted, and a scheme for re-organising, and, where necessary, expanding the Ordnance Factories in India was recommended.

Defence Gift to India.—The British Government took full account of the heavy capital cost involved which was estimated at some £34,330,000, or Rs. 45 crores. Accepting that this capital expenditure could not be found out of the resources available in India, the British Government offered to provide it from the British Exchequer. The sole condition attached was that India should bring her defence forces up to the standard of equipment necessitated by modern warfare and adjust her strategical plans to the conditions now obtaining in the world.

Of the total amount three-quarters would be provided as a free gift while one-quarter would be advanced by way of a loan. The interest on this portion, however, would be entirely remitted for the first five years; thereafter interest would become payable together with instalments of capital.

India's Defence Liabilities.—In estimating India's defence requirements, the Committee had to consider how far the prevailing conceptions as regards India's liability for defence could be held valid in the light of modern conditions.

The Committee recommended as a general principle that the forces maintained by India should be adequate not merely for the narrower purposes of purely local defence, but also to assist in maintaining what they described as "India's external security," and further that India should acknowledge that her responsibility could not in her own interests be safely limited to the local defence of her land frontiers and coasts.

It was fully appreciated that the forces maintained by India could only bear a small share in those wider responsibilities, and that she could not necessarily bear in full the cost of such forces as were maintained in India. The committee recommended therefore that the contribution hitherto paid by the British Government should be continued at the higher level of £2,000,000 a year to which it had been provisionally raised by Government.

On this basis it was estimated that it should be possible for India, without enlarging the annual provisions for defence expenditure, to meet the whole maintenance costs of the forces organised and equipped on the scale proposed. From this main principle the conclusion was drawn that if forces held in India for the purposes covered by the joint responsibility were used outside India in an emergency affecting India's external security, their ordinary maintenance charges to be borne by India.

The margin for external defence suggested was one-tenth of the forces maintained in India in the case of the Army.

PARTITION

The year 1947 was a landmark in the history of the Armed Forces of India. Consequent on the division of the country into the two Dominions of India and Pakistan, it was decided that each Dominion should establish its own Armed Forces. The Royal Indian Navy, the Indian Army and the Royal Indian Air Force were accordingly divided between the two Dominions on communal-cum-optional basis which worked out to the approximate proportion of one-third to Pakistan and two-thirds to the Union of India. A scheme was then evolved by which those units which were predominantly Hindu or Muslim should belong to India and Pakistan respectively: individuals of the other community serving in such units were given the choice as to which Dominion they wished to serve.

Thus each Dominion was allotted its own Sea, Land and Air Forces. India retained the title of Royal Indian Navy, Indian Army and the Royal Indian Air Force for these particular arms; while the titles of the Pakistan Forces became Royal Pakistan Navy, Pakistan Army and the Royal Pakistan Air Force.

Such a division and re-organisation of the Armed Forces needed a co-ordinating authority which was provided by the Supreme Commander's Headquarters. Field-Marshal Sir Claude Auchinleck, former Commander-in-Chief, was appointed as Supreme Commander with the specific purpose of reconstituting the Armed Forces for the two Dominions under the directional control of the Joint Defence Council, which consisted of representatives from both Dominions, the Governor-General of India Viscount Mountbatten being the independent Chairman.

Since the bulk of the work of reconstitution was completed sooner than it was anticipated, the Supreme Commander's Headquarters closed at the end of November, 1947, and the Joint Defence Council on April 1, 1948. A communique explained that as nearly all the functions for which the Joint Defence Council was set up had been completed there was no need for such a body. The Executive Committee of the Joint Defence Council, however, which was renamed the Inter-Dominion Defence Secretaries' Committee continued in existence in order to carry out the remaining functions of the Joint Defence Council.

As for the ordnance factories, no physical division has taken place. India has assumed full liability for their book value, and has agreed to make available to Pakistan a sum of rupees

six crores to be drawn as and when required by way of assistance towards the setting up of ordnance factories and other institutions.

As regards the ten regiments of Gurkhas recruited from Nepal (an independent country), six were retained by the Indian Union and four were transferred to the British Government to form a part of the British Army by mutual agreement between the Governments of Nepal, India and the United Kingdom.

An agreement was reached between the Government of India and His Majesty's Government that all British Forces in India would be withdrawn soon after the transfer of power. Accordingly the first detachment of the British Troops—Army and Royal Air Force—approximately 1,500 strong left India on August 17, 1947 and the withdrawal was completed on February 28, 1948, when the last British Unit—First Battalion, the Somerset Light Infantry, sailed from India.

SENIOR DEFENCE FORCES OFFICERS

Chief of Army Staff and Commander-in-Chief, Indian Army, General K. M. Cariappa, O.B.E.

Chief of the General Staff, Indian Army, Maj.-Gen. S. P. P. Thorat, D.S.O.

Adjutant-General, Indian Army, Maj.-Gen. H. L. Atal.

Quartermaster-General, Indian Army, Maj.-Gen. K. S. Thimayya.

Engineer-in-Chief, Indian Army, Maj.-Gen. H. Williams, C.B.E.

Master-General of Ordnance, Indian Army, Maj.-Gen. Sant Singh.

Military Secretary, Indian Army, Maj.-Gen. D. A. Surve.

General Officer Commanding-in-Chief, Western Command, Lt.-Gen. S. M. Shrinagesh.

General Officer Commanding-in-Chief, Eastern Command, Lt.-Gen. Thakur Nathu Singh.

General Officer Commanding-in-Chief, Southern Command, Lt.-Gen. M. S. Rajendrasinhji, D.S.O.

Indian Navy

Chief of Naval Staff & Commander-in-Chief, Indian Navy, Vice-Admiral Sir Edward Parry, K.C.B., R.N.*

Chief of Staff, Naval H. Qrs., Commodore H. Drew, C.B.E., D.S.C., R.N.

Captain, "Delhi", Commodore G. Barnard, G.B.E., D.S.O. & Bar, R.N.†

Chief of Administration, Naval H. Qrs., Captain G. S. Kapoor, I.N.

Chief of Personnel, Naval H. Qrs., Captain R. D. Katari, I.N.

Chief of Naval Aviation, Naval H. Qrs., Captain H. C. Ranald, O.B.E., R.N.

Commodore-in-Charge, Bombay, Commodore R. M. T. Taylor, R.N.

Commodore-in-Charge, Cochin, Commodore E. G. McGregor, D.S.O., R.N.

Naval Officer-in-Charge, Vizagapatam, Captain G. Gowlland, R.N.

Captain, "Shivaji", Captain Daya Shanker, I.N.

Indian Air Force

Chief of the Air Staff and Commander-in-Chief, I.A.F., Air Marshal Ronald Ivelaw-Chapman, C.B., C.B.E., D.F.C., A.F.C.

Deputy Chief of Air Staff, Air Vice-Marshal S. Mukerjee, O.B.E.

Air Officer Commanding, Operational Command, Air Commodore Arjun Singh, D.F.C.

Air Officer Commanding, Training Command, Air Commodore R. H. D. Singh.

Air Officer-in-Charge, Technical and Equipment Services (Air H.Q.), Air Commodore Narendra.

Air Officer-in-Charge, Personnel and Organisation (Air H.Q.), Air Commodore D. A. R. Nanda.

The Defence Forces of India used to contain a very large British element but the Government of the new India decided to completely nationalise the Defence Forces at the earliest date possible. Since the decision was made the nationalisation of the Indian Army has proceeded rapidly. The Committee appointed to study the nationalisation problem under the chairmanship of Mr. Gopalaswamy Ayyangar completed its report by the end of 1947. Actually even before the completion of the report, about the time when it became clear that the country would have to be divided after August 15, 1947, nationalisation had started and it was just a question of speeding up the process. The number of British Officers in the new Indian Army has varied from time to time, the highest figure for any time between April and December 1948 being 257. The last British Commander-in-Chief, General Sir Roy Bucher vacated office on January 15, 1949 when General K. M. Cariappa succeeded him as the first Indian Commander-in-Chief. The number of British Officers after March 31, 1949 will be approximately 190, the majority of the officers being specialists belonging to Technical Branches.

In the Air Force there was really no problem of nationalisation as such as the Indian Air Force had no British Officers. However, it has been necessary to obtain on loan about a dozen British Officers. In addition, a few civilian British Technicians are also employed on contract in various Air Force Installations.

In the Navy, the full achievement of nationalisation must necessarily be delayed since there does not in fact exist an adequate number of Indian Officers with the requisite experience. The policy, however, remains the same as in the other two Services, only such British Officers being retained, or accepted on loan from the Royal Navy as are absolutely essential, that is to say, those whose place cannot be filled by Indian nationals.

DEFENCE ORGANIZATION

A point that may be mentioned at the start is that the order of precedence of India's Defence Services has been re-arranged as the Army, the Navy and the Air Force, with effect from February 1, 1950.

Hitherto, the British tradition of regarding the Navy as the seniormost service had been followed in India too. But with the country becoming a sovereign democratic Republic, it has been decided to alter the order in view of the Army having undoubtedly played the most outstanding role in the long history of the country's defence.

Though now the Army is to be mentioned first, to be followed by the Navy and the Air Force, the change in no way implies that the Government of India attach less importance to either of the latter.

Notwithstanding their decision to change the order of precedence, Government propose to consider the three Services alike. In fact, their intention is to pay more attention to the Navy and the Air Force, which, though yet small in size, have to play an increasingly important part in future.

With the inauguration of the new constitution on January 26, 1950, the use of the prefix 'Royal', wherever it occurred in the designation of a service, a regiment, a corps or a unit of the Armed Forces, was discontinued. Similarly, the expression "His Majesty's Indian Ship" was also dropped.

The King's Colours awarded to different regiments of the Army were laid up on November 23, 1950, at the National Defence Academy, Dehra Dun, to be preserved as "treasured relics of the past" with due regard to their symbolic significance and historic associations.

The Defence organisation of India consists of the Ministry of Defence and the Armed Forces Headquarters with their subordinate formations.

There have been very significant changes in the organisation and functions of the Ministry of Defence since 15th August 1947. In fact, the changes commenced somewhat earlier. Before September 1946, when the Interim Government first assumed power, the Commander-in-Chief was not merely the Supreme Commander, the Head of all the three Services, but was also the Defence Minister, and occupied a specially privileged position, second only to that of the Governor-General. With the appointment of a popular representative as the Defence Minister, the Commander-in-Chief stepped down but he still continued to be the Head of the three Services. Although, therefore, it was the Defence Minister who attended Cabinet meetings and obtained Government orders or passed orders himself on behalf of Government on important matters of policy, it was the Commander-in-Chief who, by virtue of his position as the Head of the three Services, continued to be the principal co-ordinator and played a decisive role in determining and shaping the policy of the Ministry. After 15th of August 1947, there was a further fundamental change. From that date onwards, each Service was placed under its own Commander-in-Chief, their new designations being: Chief of Army Staff and Commander-in-Chief, Indian Army; Chief of Naval Staff and Commander-in-Chief, Royal Indian Navy; and Chief of Air Staff and Commander-in-Chief, Royal Indian Air Force. Broadly speaking, it is in their capacity as Chiefs of Staff, that the three Commanders-in-Chief meet the Defence Minister and the Defence Secretary.

A revolutionary change in the role of the Defence Ministry was thus effected. For the first time, the Defence Ministry assumed its proper position, which had tended to become obscured when the posts of the Defence Minister and of the Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces were combined in one person. The Ministry of Defence is responsible for obtaining policy decisions of Government, for transmitting those decisions to and seeing to their implementation by the three Service Headquarters. Also, it is still more directly responsible for ensuring the implementation of Government decisions relating to certain other matters which fall broadly into two categories; firstly those which affect all the three Services, such as, the Ordnance Factories, the organisation of the Armed Forces Medical Services, the organisation of the Scientific Adviser, the Historical Section, the publication of Military Regulations and Forms, the Pensions organisation, etc.; and secondly, those which are more closely and directly connected with civil authorities and with the public, such as, the Military Lands and Cantonments organisation, acquisition and custody of land vested in Government for purposes of Defence, and the relinquishment of such lands when they are no longer necessary for these purposes, Marine Surveys and dangers to navigation, Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Boards and Benevolent and Welfare funds. In addition there are a few other items which do not clearly fall under one or the other head, but which may be regarded broadly as falling in the second category, namely, the National Cadet Corps, the National Inter-Services Academy, and the organisation of the Armed Forces Information Officer.

DEFENCE COMMITTEES

With a view to ensuring expeditious and efficient handling of work of such complexity and extending over so many subjects, a net-work of committees has been established at different levels. There is at the top the Defence Minister's Committee which deals with the more important of the Inter-Services problems; it is composed of the Defence Minister, the three Service Chiefs, the Financial Adviser and the Defence Secretary. The decisions of this Committee are final and binding on all concerned. Where important policy issues are involved, the Committee does

* Due to retire in October, 1951. His place is to be taken by Rear-Admiral C. T. M. Pizey, C.B., D.S.O.

† Due to retire in October, 1951. His place is to be taken by Rear-Admiral N. V. Dickinson, D.S.O.

not take a final decision but makes recommendations to the Defence Committee of the Cabinet. This is composed of the Prime Minister (Chairman), the Deputy Prime Minister, the Minister for Finance, the Minister for Defence and the Minister for Transport; and in attendance the three service chiefs, the Secretary, Ministry of Defence and the Financial Adviser, Defence. For all practical purposes the Defence Committee of the Cabinet constitutes Government in so far as the Defence Ministry is concerned. As a Committee of the Cabinet, however, it again refers matters of certain kind to the Cabinet for confirmation. Under the Defence Minister's Committee are organised a number of subsidiary committees which are competent to take final decisions, but which submit all policy issues and matters of importance to the Defence Minister's Committee. The more important of these Committees are the Chiefs of STAFF, the Scientific Advisory and the Medical Committees. The Chiefs of Staff Committee, composed of the Heads of the three Services, is responsible for advising the Defence Committee of the Cabinet, usually through the Defence Minister's Committee, on all military matters which require Ministerial consideration.

No organisation under the Indian Armed Forces exists to undertake a systematic study of the extensive and highly developed defence science. Experience of World War II has shown the value of scientific research for the defence services, and it is universally agreed that adequate scientific research organisation is essential for the defence organisation of the country. India made a start by appointing, Dr. D. S. Kothari, as scientific adviser to the Ministry of Defence in July, 1948. He is guided by a Defence Science Policy Board which includes among its members three distinguished Indian scientists. It is proposed to secure within the next year or so the services of at least another 40 senior scientists and 100 junior scientists. A plan of development is already being worked out. When the defence science organisation is properly established its main functions would be to advise the Ministry on matters of scientific interest to the Services (including the imparting of scientific education to the members of the Armed Forces) and on questions of scientific strategy for the defence of India. It will also advise and assist service scientific establishments on scientific developments and research, provision of laboratory facilities and so on.

Army Headquarters

The Army Headquarters functions directly under the Chief of the Army Staff and the Commander-in-Chief, Indian Army. It is divided into the following main branches which are again further sub-divided into directorates :—

General Staff Branch;
Adjutant-General's Branch;
Quartermaster-General's Branch;
Master-General of Ordnance Branch;
Engineer-in-Chief's Branch;
Military Secretary's Branch.

Under the Army Headquarters, the Army is organised into commands, each command under a General Officer Commanding-in-Chief of the rank of Lieutenant-General. The commands are divided into areas, each under the command of a G.O.C. of the rank of Major-General and the areas in their turn are sub-divided into sub-areas under the command of a Brigadier. These are static formations.

India is now divided into three commands, the Eastern Command, the Southern Command and the Western Command, the old Northern Command having gone to Pakistan. For organizing an adequate and efficient defence of the north-west frontier of India a purely operational command was established to start with. This was known as the "Delhi and East Punjab Command". One of the first tasks it had to carry out was the establishment of law and order in the disturbed province of the Punjab (I) and the evacuation of millions of Indian nationals from across the border. Later this Command had to assume operational responsibility in Jammu and Kashmir. This necessitated the command's reorganisation as it became clear that it could not function purely as an operational Command and that it was essential for it to take over administrative responsibilities over defined areas. Therefore, on March 1, 1948, it was brought up to the shape and size of a full-fledged static command like the Southern and Eastern Commands and was re-designated "The Western Command". Its jurisdiction extends from Mhow in the South in Central India to the southern boundaries of Kashmir. It includes the whole of Rajasthan, Delhi and the Punjab (I).

THE INDIAN ARMY

The Indian Army is divided into numerous arms of the service, in just the same way as the British Army.

Armoured Corps.—The corps was formed from Regiments of the Indian Cavalry, on mechanisation. The first regiment was mechanised in January 1940 and by the beginning of 1941, the last horse had disappeared from the Corps. The Indian Armoured Corps is now composed of two types of Regiments—The Armoured Regiment equipped with Medium Tanks and the Light Armoured Regiment equipped with Light Tanks and Armoured Cars. Each regiment has a proportion of lorries and trucks, which are used for administrative purposes. The men are drawn from every community and are posted to the various regiments according to their class composition. The Corps has also, for the first time in its history, a regiment of all class Madrassis which brings recruiting onto as wide a basis as possible.

The Regiment of Artillery.—Consists of Field, Medium, Mountain, Anti-tank, Heavy and Light Anti-Aircraft, Survey Regiments and Coast Batteries, the most famous of these is the Mountain Artillery. In addition, it has its own Air Observation Post Flights to help, observe and engage ground targets from the air. During the Second World War the Royal Indian Artillery increased to nearly 84,000 all ranks serving, among other units, in 12 Mountain, 11 Field, 7 Anti-tank, 2 Medium and 29 Anti-Aircraft Regiments.

The Corps of Engineers.—The Engineer-in-Chief at Army H.Q. as the head of the Corps of Engineers controls the following :—

(*a*) The Corps of Engineers consisting of military units.

(*b*) Military Engineer Services.

The Corps of Engineers (military units) is composed of Field and Line of Communication units, Transportation and Survey units. The Field and Line of Communication units include such specialised units as Plant units, workshop and Park companies and well boring units. The transportation service caters for railway and inland water transport, and ports. The survey units satisfy the survey and mapping requirements of the army.

All these military units are based on the three following Engineer Groups: Madras Engineer Group; Bengal Engineer Group; Bombay Engineer Group.

These Engineer Groups have been in existence since 1780.

The Military Engineer Services carry out construction and maintenance of all living and ancillary accommodation and essential services for the Army, Navy and Air Force. In addition they undertake the construction of roads and airfields wherever required.

Since August 1947, the Corps of Engineers have done magnificent work in Jammu and Kashmir. They have also rendered great service to the country by assisting in the construction of dams for the "Grow More Food Campaign" in Lalitpur and Magwa, by digging tube wells for famine relief work in Broach district, by levelling of sites and construction of huts and ancilliary facilities in connection with resettlement of displaced persons, and by the speedy construction of embankments and other earthworks for the Assam Rail Link project. Again for the Kumbh Mela in Hardwar they constructed a large number of bridges and semi-permanent huts for the mela.

During 1950, besides carrying out their normal functions for the Army, Navy and the Air Force, the Corps of Engineers rendered considerable assistance to the Civil authorities on national projects, Assam earthquake and anti-flood measures.

Army Ordnance Corps.—This Corps is the equivalent of the Royal Army Ordnance Corps in the British Army. It deals with the procurement, storage and issue of all stores, vehicles, equipment and weapons used by the Army except food, medical and engineer stores. It is also responsible for the disposal of salvage and surplus stores—the latter subject to certain financial limits.

Technical Development Establishments.—Technical Development Establishments function under the Directorate of Technical Development, Master-General of the Ordnance Branch, Army Headquarters. They are responsible for design, development, research, introduction into the service, packaging, preservation and pest control of equipment, including clothing, general stores and vehicles. All stores of Ordnance supply are inspected by Technical Inspectors belonging to these Establishments, located throughout India.

Corps of Electrical and Mechanical Engineers.—This corps is equivalent to the Royal Corps of Electrical and Mechanical Engineers of the British Army. It is responsible for the inspection, repair and recovery of all mechanical, electrical and optical equipments of the Army and the items of equipments of the Navy and the Air Force which are common to the Three Services, with the exception of constructional, productive and structural engineering equipments belonging to the Corps of Engineers. It is also responsible for the manufacture and repair of artificial limbs and for the inspection and repair of small arms and wireless sets of the civil police.

This corps can broadly be divided into three categories. The first category consists of training establishments such as E.M.E. School at Kirkee and the E.M.E. (Training) Centre at Jalahalli (Bangalore). The second one consists of a variety of E.M.E. static workshops such as Station Workshops with attached specialist components and Army Command Workshops. The third category consists of mobile field units which in certain cases, are attached to and form integral part of major mechanised units, and in other cases, are allotted on a formational basis.

Repair task of all types of equipment have been classified into FOUR echelons and different type of workshop units exist to carry out different echelons both in the field and in the peace stations. Added flexibility is given to the system by permitting workshops to undertake, to a limited extent, repairs of a different echelon or higher echelon, in an emergency. This, however, to a great extent, depends upon the scale of workshop equipment and spares.

The head of the corps is the Director of Mechanical Engineering. He comes under the Master-General of the Ordnance and is responsible through him to the Chief of Army Staff and Commander-in-Chief for the technical efficiency of the equipments as well as for advice on all matters affecting inspection, repair and recovery of army equipments. As Director of the Corps, he is responsible for the overall efficiency of all the types of workshop units and the well-being of the corps in general.

The Infantry.—In 1944, the M. & R. Sikh Regiment was redesignated as "The Sikh Light Infantry."

During 1945 several changes took place in the designation and titles of Indian Regts., the most important being the change in title of the 4th Bombay Grenadiers which became the Indian Grenadiers and the 19th Hyderabad Regiment which was renamed the Kumaon Regiment. All other Indian regiments with the exception of the Punjab Regiment dropped their numerical designations.

Army Service Corps.—The Army Service Corps is one of the oldest services in the army. The origin of the Corps dates back to the year 1760, in which year the office of the Commissary General was created in each of the armies of the then three presidencies of Bengal, Bombay and Madras. In 1810, the commissariat systems of the three presidencies were formally constituted as departments of the army, and designated as Army Commissariat Department. In 1882, a transport branch was raised to deal with transport problems of the forces. A further landmark in the history of the Corps was the year 1901, when the department was organised into Supply and Transport Corps, by which name it continued to be known till 1923. In this year it was renamed as 'Indian Army Service Corps'. The prefix 'Royal' was conferred on it in June 1935 for meritorious services. Due to constitutional changes, the Royal Indian Army Service Corps was redesignated Army Service Corps with effect from January 26, 1950. In recognition of the exemplary services rendered to the State, the President, in 1950, was pleased to sanction the use of the State emblem (Ashoka Lions) by the Corps in their badges.

The Army Service Corps is under the overall control of the Quartermaster-General and is administered by the Director of Supplies and Transport.

The primary role of the Corps is provisioning, maintaining, transporting and distributing articles of rations, fuel, petrol, oils and lubricants to meet requirements of the armed forces. The three main branches of the Corps are :—

(*a*) Supplies
(*b*) Transport
(*c*) POL

In addition, the Corps is also responsible for catering arrangements in the army. Since October 1950, the Army Postal Service has merged with the Corps and forms an integral part of it. The Corps also provides Clerks Army Service Corps (Staff Duties) in Army Headquarters, and headquarters Commands, Divisions, Areas and other staff offices.

The Supply branch was completely militarised in 1941 and the number of supply and petroleum units raised during the last war rose to 1,256.

Mechanical transport was taken over by the Corps in 1927. The years of World War II witnessed a considerable expansion in the Army Service Corps transport activities. From 36 animal transport companys and 20 mechanical transport units of various types, the number rose to 80 animal transport companys and 304 mechanical transport units. The elephant was for the first time taken into service and found very useful in Burma. New additions to the transport fleet of the Corps were tank transporters, amphibians and air despatch companys. The Corps also provides motor ambulance units for hospitals, field medical units and vehicles for miscellaneous purposes.

There has been a great expansion in air supplies, which aspect of maintenance of the forces gained considerable importance during World War II. The air dropping of supplies was very often resorted to in Burma. The air supplies again played an important role during the Jammu and Kashmir operations and also in feeding the civil population marooned by floods and earthquakes in Assam and floods in Punjab in 1950.

Army Educational Corps.—The education of the Army is carried out by officers, J.C.O.'s and N.C.O.'s of the Army Educational Corps, which was formed in June, 1947. They work under the direction of the Chief of the General Staff through the Director of Military Training. Personnel of the Educational Corps are posted to all formations and units. The Army Educational Corps Centre and School, Pachmarhi, is responsible for training the personnel of the Corps and regimental educational instructors, and for carrying out experiments in educational methods.

The Military Music Wing was started in October 1950 and now forms part of the Army Educational Centre and School. This Music Wing is responsible for training all Band-masters, Regimental Musicians, Pipers, Drummers, Buglers and Trumpeters in the Army.

Clerks Army Service Corps (Staff Duties).—For the efficient administration of the Army much depends on Clerks Army Service Corps (Staff Duties) who form in the main the clerical staffs at Army Headquarters Commands, Areas/Divisions and other staff offices.

During World War II a vast expansion took place with an overwhelming increase in the peace time strength of the Cadre. Whenever the Army fought the clerks of this Corps were with them.

Remount Veterinary and Farms Corps.—The R.V.F. Corps is responsible for the following functions during Peace and War :—(*a*) Breeding, procurement and training of transport animals of the Army ; (*b*) Veterinary care and shoeing of Army animals including those of the Military Farms ; (*c*) Inspection of meat issued to troops ; (*d*) Issue of dairy produce to the Army and provision of fodder for the Army animals.

The Corps consists of qualified Veterinary Officers, Remount and Farm Officers and Veterinary Assistant Surgeons.

Armed Forces Medical Services.—The Government of India accepted the recommendations of the Special Committee, set up in 1946, under the Chairmanship of Dr. B. C. Roy (now Premier of West Bengal) to examine the question of integrating the medical services of the Armed Forces and sanctioned the integration of this service. A Director-General of the Armed Forces Medical Services, Lt.-Gen. K. S. Master, was appointed in Sept. 1948, and a start was made with the preparation of detailed plans for integration. The Indian Medical Service, as a separate service, ceased to exist on Aug. 15, 1947 and its place was taken by the Indian Army Medical Corps.

The Royal Army Medical Corps, the Royal Army Dental Corps, Queen Alexandria's Imperial Military Nursing Service in India, which were primarily responsible for the medical care of the British troops ceased to function in India after August 15, 1947.

The Medical services of the Armed Forces of India are composed of the following categories of personnel and subordinate organisations :—

(*a*) Officers and other ranks of the AMC which came into existence on April 3, 1943 and organised on the lines of the RAMC. It embodies the late IMS (Military Wing), the IMD and the IHC.
(*b*) Officers and other ranks of the Army Dental Corps which came into existence on April 3, 1943 and is organised on the lines of the Royal Army Dental Corps.
(*c*) The Military Nursing Service.
(*d*) The Auxiliary Nursing Service.

TERRITORIAL ARMY

As an outcome of the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms of 1919 and in accordance with the desire of the people of India for more opportunities for military service, an Indian Territorial Force was created by an Act passed in 1920.

At the conclusion of the Second World War and the attainment of independence it was decided to raise a Territorial Army. The Territorial Army Act, 1948 which repeals the Indian Territorial Act, 1920 was passed by Parliament in September 1948. The main difference between the old Indian Territorial Force and the Territorial Army is that, while under the old Act its composition was limited to a few Provincial Infantry Battalions, a small number of medical officers belonging to the medical branch and the University Officers' Training Corps (U.O.T.C.) the Territorial Army consists of all arms of service *i.e.* the Armoured Corps, the Corps of Artillery including Anti-aircraft and Coastal Defence units, the Corps of Engineers including Port and Railway units, the Corps of Signals, Infantry, the Army Service Corps, the Army Medical Corps, the Corps of Electrical and Mechanical Engineers. The units raised are of two types, *i.e.* Provincial units recruited from rural areas who undergo training at a stretch of one annual camp of two to three months duration, and Urban units comprising men recruited from large towns where TA units have been raised and who undergo training on the weekly drill system, *i.e.* in the evenings, Sundays and holidays with a small camp of not less than 4 days and not exceeding 14 days.

All able-bodied persons from the unskilled labourer to highly qualified technicians provided they are citizens of India, are eligible for recruitment. The age limits are 18 and 35 years relaxable in case of ex-service (Army, Navy and Air Force) personnel and civilians possessing technical qualifications.

The country has been divided into eight zones for purposes of recruitment which is done on zonal basis, *i.e.* only residents of the zone are recruited to the units which are raised from that zone.

The object of the Territorial Army is to form a second line of defence to the Regular Army in the event of a national emergency ; in other words, to provide additional units and formations to re-inforce the Regular Army immediately an emergency arises. Both in war and in an emergency the Territorial Army would relieve the Regular Army partly or wholly of its internal security commitments. It would be responsible for the anti-aircraft and coastal defence of the country and supply technical units to assist the Regular Army in war. Above all, it will give the youth of India an opportunity of receiving part-time military training, so that in an emergency, they would be capable of bearing arms for the country.

When embodied called out or under training, the Territorial Army personnel receives the same pay and allowances as are admissible to the corresponding ranks of the Regular Army. The Territorial Army was inaugurated in October 1949 and simultaneously the recruitment was thrown open. The response has been very encouraging and the citizen army has made steady progress. Seventy per cent of the target aimed at for 1949-50 was reached by the end of January 1951.

Minimum qualifications for officers commission in the TA have been laid down. All civilian candidates are required to appear before the Services Selection Boards as is being done for the candidates for the Regular Army. The other ranks are recruited by the TA unit Commanders and Recruiting Officers throughout the Country.

No officer or enrolled person is required to perform military service beyond the limits of India save under a general or special order of the Central Government. Every officer when performing duty as an officer and every enrolled person when called out or embodied or attached to Regular Forces is subject to the Army Act.

FORMER STATES FORCES

The States Forces, formerly designated "Imperial Service Troops," consist of the military forces raised and maintained by the Rulers of former States at their own expense and for State service. It has been the custom in emergency for State troops to be lent to the Government of India, and the Government of India have on many occasions received military assistance of great value from this source. During the years 1947 and 1948 very considerable numbers of the State Forces were employed, for service with the Indian Army.

The changes brought about as a result of the integration of the States have had their inevitable repercussions on the position of the State Forces. The Forces of the States which have merged into Provinces or which have been integrated

into Chief Commissioners' Provinces are being taken over by the Indian Army. So far as the Forces of the States Unions are concerned the Government of India have taken over entire control of some of them while in the case of the others the administrative Control is left with the Rajpramukh subject to certain conditions (see section on former States).

The Government of India have also appointed a Military Adviser-in-Chief, Indian States Forces, to co-ordinate the training organization and administration of these forces.

NATIONAL CADET CORPS

In July 1946 the Government of India appointed a Committee called the National Cadet Corps Committee under the Chairmanship of Pt. Hirday Nath Kunzru, the veteran Liberal leader. This Committee popularly known as "Kunzru Committee" submitted a 44-page report to the Government which was simultaneously released to the press when the formation of a 200,000-strong National Cadet Corps and a Territorial Force, already mentioned, were announced by India's Defence Minister, Sardar Baldev Singh in the Central Legislature on March 13, 1948. He said that one of the steps by which Government propose to impart military training to Indian youth was to implement immediately the report of the National Cadet Corps Committee.

The National Cadet Corps scheme was implemented in all Provinces and in the majority of the States of India on 15th July 1948. During the years 1948 and 1949, a total of 157 units Senior Division and 395 Troops Junior Division and 3 Troops of Girls Division were raised. This brought the total strength to 21,378 Senior Division, 35,200 Junior Division and 270 Girls Division by the end of 1949. During 1950, 10 units of the Senior Division, 73 troops of the Junior Division and 2 Squadrons of the Air Wing were raised. This brought the total strength to 726 Officers, 22,623 cadets Senior Division, 1,455 Officers, 43,650 cadets of the Junior Division, 9 Officers, 270 cadets Girls Division and 4 Officers and 160 cadets Air Wing by the end of 1950. A sub-unit of the Junior Division consisting of one NCC Officer and 30 cadets has also been raised in 9 Public Schools.

National Cadet Corps units are being officered by professors and school teachers who have been granted National Cadet Corps commissions after they have successfully completed military training with Army units. A total of 624 professors and 1,275 school teachers have completed their training so far. There has been a great response from the student community with all Colleges and Schools having long waiting lists.

The enrolment in the National Cadet Corps is entirely voluntary and without any liability for service in the Armed Forces—"Government being confident that the enthusiasm of youth in general for serving the country is sufficient guarantee that the response in Colleges and Schools will be satisfactory."

INDIAN AIR FORCE

The Indian Air Force had its origin in the recommendations of the Skeene Committee in 1926. The Indian Legislature passed the Indian Air Force Act in 1932, and in 1933 the first flight of the Indian Air Force was formed at Karachi with four Westland Wapitis. From that first flight with six pilots trained at the R.A.F. College, Cranwell, has grown a Service which by 1946 had 8 Fighter and 2 Transport Squadrons and an anti-aircraft co-operation unit.

Trained originally for Army Co-operation work, the Indian Pilots had their first operational experience over the difficult flying country of the North-Western Frontier. They shared with the R.A.F. the duty of policing the tribal territory till the summer of 1941 when they took over the work completely.

On the outbreak of the war in 1939 the Indian Air Force Volunteer Reserve was formed for the purpose of guarding India's coast and keeping the shipping lanes open. It carried out this work with conspicuous success till the end of 1942 when it was embodied in the I.A.F. During the Burma campaign of 1942 the I.A.F. had its first experience of operations against a major power. No. 1 I.A.F. Squadron and Coastal Defence Flights distinguished themselves in these operations. From November 1943 till the end of the Burma campaign the I.A.F. Squadrons were fully engaged in offensive operations against the Japanese in the Arakan and Imphal Fronts. Equipped with Vultee-Vengeances, Hurricanes and Spitfires the I.A.F. Squadrons operated continuously on the Burma Front. Their particular duties included attack on enemy troops, supply dumps and lines of communications. Tactical and photographic reconnaissance, close support to the Army, dive-bombing and fighter escort work with supply-dropping aircraft, were the other tasks which the IAF carried out with notable success.

On March 12, 1945, His Majesty the King approved the designation of 'Royal' as a prefix to the Indian Air Force in recognition of the work done during the war. When India became a Republic on January 26, 1950, the use of the prefix 'Royal' was discontinued. In 1946 No. 4 R.I.A.F. Squadron went to Japan as part of the British Commonwealth Occupation Forces. Consequent on the partition of the country India received one transport and seven fighter squadrons as her share of allotment.

From August 15, 1947 the Indian Air Force became an independent Service under the Defence Ministry. The Indian Air Force is now commanded by Chief of the Air Staff and Commander-in-Chief, I.A.F. After partition, a new H.Q. Staff more or less equivalent to the Air Ministry, was established in Delhi with the object of planning, building up and directing the activities of the Indian Air Force. The Air Headquarters, New Delhi now consists of three main Branches—the Air Staff, the Personnel and Organisation Staff, and the Technical and Equipment Staff. Each Branch is under the charge of a Principal Staff Officer of the rank of Air Commodore of Air Vice-Marshal.

The I.A.F. played an invaluable part in the Kashmir Operations. Without this powerful wing of the country's armed forces it would not have been possible for India to give the State any help when it was urgently needed. In the Poonch Sector alone, cut off from the rest of the country, where refugees had gathered in thousands, the I.A.F. dropped tons of supplies, and airlifted nearly thirty thousand refugees. The flights to Leh over unchartered routes and at an altitude of 24,000 feet without proper flying facilities and to Gilgit in unfavourable weather conditions, present examples of great heroism and airmanship. During 1947 and 1948 the I.A.F. found itself busy with the urgent peacetime tasks of evacuating refugees. Then there was police action in Junagadh and Hyderabad.

Since the institution of Republican India's gallantry awards on January 26, 1950, three I.A.F. Officers have been awarded the Maha Vir Chakras. In addition, 27 fighter and transport aircrew, one Air Observation Post (Auster) pilot and two airmen have received the Vir Chakras in recognition of their meritorious services in Jammu and Kashmir.

The I.A.F. Units outside Delhi are, in the main, controlled by two commands formerly known as 'Groups'. The Operational Command at Palam controls all front line squadrons and the Training Command, Bangalore, is responsible for the training of ground personnel entering the I.A.F. in all its various trades that are necessary to ensure proper functioning of aircraft and the ground stations at which the aircraft are based.

A new 'all-through' flying training scheme was introduced in 1949 for training future I.A.F. pilots. This scheme replaced the former three-stage flying training at Initial Training Wing, Coimbatore, Elementary Flying Training School, Jodhpur and Advanced Flying School, Ambala. Under the new scheme a pupil-pilot receives service flying training from A to Z, at one of the two Air Force Academies instituted at Ambala and Jodhpur. I.T.W. at Coimbatore has now been raised to the status of an Academy for training I.A.F. officers of non-technical ground-duty branches. The staff of all these training establishments is wholly Indian.

A notable step in the development of the I.A.F. has been the establishment of a Technical Training College in India. Instituted on the lines of the well-known Air Services Training Limited at Hamble, Southampton, England, popularly known as the Air University of England, this College has on its staff a number of experienced British Instructors. Advanced training in engineering, signals and armament branches of the I.A.F. is imparted at this I.A.F.T.T. College to direct entry officers and officers commissioned from the ranks, and apprentices.

Training facilities in general have expanded throughout the length and breadth of the country covering all phases of instruction for flying and ground personnel. The expansion during the last few years has been phenomenal. Training is of a very high standard. Provided with some of the latest equipment and able guidance of highly skilled instructors, technical schools are turning out first-class technicians capable of handling latest aircraft and equipment. The Navigation Training School, the Flying Instructor's School and the Aircraft Testing Unit are some of the more recent and important additions to the expanding air force of the country. True to its tradition, once again late in 1950 the I.A.F. rushed to the rescue of the earthquake victims in Assam and of the flood-stricken people in the Punjab.

INDIAN NAVY

On 14th August 1947, before partition, the Indian Navy had six modern sloops, four frigates, 16 fleet mine-sweepers and a number of minor craft. The strength of the personnel at the time was 997 officers and 10,061 ratings. As a result of partition the sloops NARBADA and GODAVARI, the frigates SHAMSHER and DHANUSH, four mine-sweepers and some minor craft were allocated to Pakistan. In addition to this the Indian Navy lost three of its Shore Establishments to Pakistan; these were H.M.I.S. DILAWAR, BAHADUR and HIMALAYA, all at Karachi. The first two were Boys' Training Establishments and the third Gunnery and Radar School. The following ships were allocated to India: Sloops: SUTLEJ, JUMNA, KISTNA, CAUVERY; Frigates: TIR, KUKRI; Mine-Sweepers: ORISSA, DECCAN, BIHAR, KUMAON, KHYBER, ROHILKHAND, CARNATIC, RAJPUTANA, KONKAN, BOMBAY, BENGAL, MADRAS. Corvette: ASSAM; Survey Vessel: INVESTIGATOR; Trawlers: NASIK, CALCUTTA, COCHIN, AMRITSAR. Then there are four harbour defence motor launches. And all existing landing craft.

The Indian Navy now consists of: Cruiser (Flag Ship): DELHI; 11th Destroyer Flotilla: RAJPUT (Capt. D), RANJIT, RANA; 12th Frigate Flotilla: JUMNA (Capt. F), CAUVERY, SUTLEJ, KISTNA; Boys Training Ship: TIR; Fleet Mine-Sweepers: RAJPUTANA, ROHILKHAND, KONKAN, MADRAS; Survey Ship: KUKRI; Ocean Going Tug: HATHI; 121st Seaward Defence Motor Launch Flotilla: 1110, 1112, 1118; L.S.T. (Landing Ship Tank): AVENGER M.L.420.

In addition, the Indian Navy has the following miscellaneous crafts:—BENGAL, BOMBAY, SAMBHAR, MMS 130, MMS 154, MMS 132, I.C.T. 1310, L.C.T. 1294, L.C.T. 1177, L.C.T. 1358, S.D.M.L. 1117.

The personnel at present in the Indian Navy total 737 officers and approximately 7,000 ratings.

On 15th January 1949 Naval Headquarters was re-organised into five main branches each under a Principal Staff Officer styled as follows:—

Deputy Commander-in-Chief and Chief of Staff; Chief of Personnel; Chief of Administration; Chief of Material; Chief of Naval Aviation.

On 4th April 1949 a new appointment designated Commodore Indian Naval Squadron (Short title COMINS) was created. COMINS was responsible for the operations, administration and training of Indian Naval ships in commission. This appointment was subsequently raised to the status of Rear-Admiral Commanding Indian Naval Squadron (short title RACINS).

In August 1950 it was decided to set up a Secretariat in Naval Headquarters modelled on the Secretariat of the British Admiralty. The Head of the Secretariat is the Naval Secretary.

The Commander-in-Chief, Indian Navy exercises his command through the following officers :—(*i*) Rear-Admiral Commanding Indian Naval Squadron (RACINS) ; (*ii*) Commodore-in-Charge, Bombay (COMBAY) ; (*iii*) Commodore-in-Charge, Cochin (COMCHIN) ; (*iv*) Naval Officer-in-Charge, Vishakapatnam (NOIC Vizag) ; (*v*) Resident Naval Officer, Madras (RNO MADRAS) ; (*vi*) Resident Naval Officer, Calcutta (RNO CALCUTTA).

The Rear-Admiral Commanding Indian Naval Squadron exercises operational control over the ships of the Indian Naval Squadron which normally consist of the Cruiser and all Destroyers and Frigates in Commission other than the ships of the Surveying Service. Control of Destroyers and Frigates is exercised through the Captain (D) 11th Destroyer Flotilla and the Captain (F) 12th Frigate Flotilla respectively under the overall control of Rear-Admiral Commanding Indian Naval Squadron. Certain ships may, however, be detached from the Squadron from time to time on the orders of the Naval Headquarters and placed under the operational control of other authorities as required.

Ships of the Surveying Service are under the operational control of Naval Headquarters. This control is normally exercised through the Surveyor-in-Charge, Marine Survey of India.

Indian Navy Since Partition

On September 15, 1948, I.N.S. DELHI, the 7,000 ton Cruiser of the Leander class acquired by India from the United Kingdom arrived at Bombay and was received by the Prime Minister.

Soon after the Indian Naval Squadron was formed with DELHI as the Flagship and all the available Frigates as the ships of the Squadron.

In the spring of 1949, India acquired three Destroyers from the Royal Navy which were re-named I.N.S. RAJPUT, RANJIT and RANA. These Destroyers form the 11th Destroyer Flotilla under the overall command of a Captain (Destroyers). They carried out a comprehensive working up programme with the British Mediterranean Fleet where they took part in a series of exercises. On 23 January, 1950 they arrived in India and were received by the Governor of Bombay on behalf of the Government of India. The 11th Destroyer Flotilla then joined up with the Indian Naval Squadron.

On January 26, 1950 a historic change took place when the Royal Indian Navy shed the title 'Royal' and became the Indian Navy. The White Ensign was replaced by the new Indian Naval Ensign with due ceremony in all ships and establishments.

Soon after her arrival from the United Kingdom, I.N.S. DELHI undertook a cruise round the Indian ports and also visited the Andaman Islands. The object of the cruise was mainly to provide working up experience for officers and men and also to show the ship to the public of India. During this cruise opportunity was taken to exercise with the ships of the British fleet at Tricomalee. Again in March 1949 I.N.S. DELHI took part in similar exercises.

In May 1949, I.N.S. DELHI proceeded on a cruise to the Seychelles, Mauritius, Zanzibar, Dar-es-Salam, Mombassa and Aden. I.N.S. TIR joined DELHI at Zanzibar, and both ships returned to India in Jul 1949.

In February 1950 the Indian Naval Squadron (which now included the three recently acquired Destroyers) carried out a large scale exercise with units of the British East Indies Squadron and later proceeded to Trincomalee where more exercises were carried out. The Squadron returned to Bombay in March 1950.

In June 1950, the Indian Navy had the honour of taking the Prime Minister, Mr. Jawaharlal Nehru to Indonesia. The Prime Minister took passage in I.N.S. DELHI which was escorted by the three Destroyers, RAJPUT, RANJIT and RANA. At the same time, the Frigate Flotilla left Cochin on a cruise to Malayan Ports—Penang, Port Swettenham, Port Dickson, Malacca and Singapore, and later rendezvoused with the rest of the Squadron, returning from Indonesia, outside Singapore Harbour on 21st June 1950. The complete Squadron then visited Singapore, Penang, Nancowry, Port Blair, Vishakapatnam, Madras and Trincomalee, returning to Bombay in September 1950.

In December 1950 I.N.S. RAJPUT sailed for Australia to take part in the Commonwealth Jubilee celebrations at Sydney and visited other Australian ports. She also visited New Zealand.

In January 1951, two Frigates of the Indian Naval Squadron—I.N.S. JUMNA and I.N.S. CAUVERY—sailed to the Persian Gulf on a good-will cruise. They visited ports in Iran, Iraq and Arabia.

Training

The training of ratings in the Indian Navy is now carried out in shore establishments at Cochin, Vishakapatnam, Jamnagar and Lonavla under the overall supervision of the Commodore-in-Charge, Cochin who, in addition to his other duties, carries out the function of the Commodore Superintendent Training Establishments.

The Boys Training Establishment is located at Vishakapatnam while the Mechanical Training Establishment is situated at Lonavla. There is a combined school at Cochin which covers Communications, Torpedo and Anti-Submarine, Gunnery, Seamanship, Supply and Secretariat duties and Cookery. The foundation stone of the permanent structures for the combined schools was laid by the Defence Minister, Sardar Baldev Singh, on February 25th 1950. The Electrical School is at Jamnagar.

Cadets for the Indian Navy now receive their general education along with the cadets for the Army and the Air Force in the Joint Services Wing of the National Defence Academy at Dehra Dun and on completion of this initial training proceed to United Kingdom for higher naval training. In future, however, when the National Defence Academy at Khadakvasla begins to function the general education will be provided in that establishment.

In August 1950 a naval staff course was inaugurated at the Defence Services Staff College at Wellington (Nilgiris). It is a one-year course with 70 per cent. of the syllabus being separate and 30 per cent. (combined Inter Service). The chief naval instructor is in charge of instruction and is the head of the naval wing.

Another development of importance is that of naval aviation, the preliminary steps for which have already been taken. The Chief of Naval Aviation at the Naval Headquarters has worked out the plans and a phased programme of development. As a first step some naval officers were sent to the United Kingdom early in 1949 for pilot training. These were followed by some ERAS (Engine Room Artificers) who are being converted to aircraft artificers. A number of officers are also under training as pilots at the IAF Academies at Jodhpur and Ambala. It has been decided that for the present naval aviation will be restricted to the formation of a shore based Fleet Requirement Unit which will form the nucleus of trained personnel from which to expand at a later date.

The scheme to provide the Indian Navy with a dockyard capable of coping with the size of the fleet contemplated for the future, is under active consideration.

To co-ordinate all matters connected with scientific naval research and development and provide scientific assistance to the Navy, Dr. G. E. Gale was appointed Scientific Adviser in March 1951. Dr. Gale who belongs to the Royal Scientific Service, has been lent to the Indian Navy by the Admiralty.

Dr. J. E. Keyston of the Royal Naval Scientific Service submitted his report on "The requirements of the Indian Navy for Scientific Assistance" in December 1949. As a first step he recommended the setting up of an Underwater Science Establishment and a Dockyard Laboratory. It is hoped to make a start with the Underwater Science Establishment in Cochin and Naval Dockyard Laboratory in Bombay during 1951.

One of the important section of the material side is the Naval Armaments Inspection Directorate. The Director of this organisation co-ordinates inspection, experimental and development work of Indian naval armaments stores.

Marine Survey vessels of the Indian Navy have for a long time been playing an important role in carrying out the survey of the country's coast, approaches to harbours and ports.

Last year, I.N.S. KUKRI, formerly an anti-submarine frigate, was specially converted into a survey vessel to take the place of I.N.S. INVESTIGATOR which being too old had been paid off.

In view of the importance of marine survey, some naval officers and men are being sent to U.K. to receive advanced training in hydrography. In addition, it is now proposed to set up a Hydrographic office of the Navy, when the necessary navigation charts could be produced.

NEW GALLANTRY AWARDS

Three new gallantry awards have been instituted by the President of the Indian Republic. They are designated the Param Vir Chakra, the Maha Vir Chakra and the Vir Chakra. These are for gallantry in combat with the enemy and come into force with effect from August 15, 1947.

The Param Vir Chakra is awarded for most conspicuous bravery, or some daring or pre-eminent act of valour, or self-sacrifice, in the presence of the enemy, whether on land, at sea, or in the air. It will rank first among all awards.

The Maha Vir Chakra will be awarded for acts of gallantry in the presence of the enemy whether on land, at sea, or in the air. It will rank next to and immediately after the Param Vir Chakra.

The Vir Chakra will be awarded for acts of gallantry in the presence of the enemy, whether on land, at sea, or in the air. It will rank next to and immediately after the Maha Vir Chakra.

All members of the Armed Forces including members of the Nursing Services and civilians working with the Armed Forces are eligible for the gallantry awards.

If any recipient of a Chakra again performs such an act of bravery as would have made him or her eligible to receive the Chakra, such further act of bravery will be recorded by a Bar to be attached to the riband by which the Chakra is suspended, and for every such additional act of bravery, an additional Bar will be added, and any such Bar or Bars may also be awarded posthumously. For every Bar awarded a replica of the "Indra's Vajra" in miniature will be added to the riband when worn alone.

Every recipient of any of these decorations who is junior in rank to a Sub-Lieutenant in the Navy, a Second-Lieutenant in the Army, or a Pilot Officer in the Air Force, is entitled from the date of the act by which the decoration has been gained to a special pension, and each additional Bar conferred will carry with it additional pension, for life.

The rates of monetary allowance admissible are as below :—

(*a*) (*i*) Param Vir Chakra.—Rs. 50 p.m. (Rs. 70 p.m. in the case of J.C.O.s who have previously been awarded an award of the second Order of gallantry, such as the I.O.M.).

(*ii*) Each Bar to PVC—Rs. 20 p.m.

(*b*) (*i*) Maha Vir Chakra.—Rs. 30 p.m. (Rs. 50 p.m. in the case of J.C.O.s who have been previously awarded a gallantry award of the 3rd order such as the M.C.).

(*ii*) Each Bar to M.V.C.—Rs. 10 p.m.

(*c*) (*i*) Vir Chakra.—Rs. 20 p.m.

(*ii*) Each Bar to Vr.C.—Rs. 8 p.m.

On the death of such a recipient of the Chakra the pension will be continued to his widow until her death or remarriage.

It has also been decided to institute a fourth award, named the Ashoka Chakra, for conferment in recognition of acts other than in combat with the enemy, as for example in maintaining law and order. The actual design of the medal and other details are being worked out.

Members of the Armed Forces and civilians alike will be eligible for this award.

A system of Mention-in-Despatches has also been instituted with August 15, 1947 to recognise distinguished and meritorious service in operational areas and acts of gallantry which are not of a sufficiently high order to warrant the grant of gallantry awards. The terms of eligibility for Mention-in-Despatches are the same as for gallantry awards. Names may be included posthumously and there is no objection to a person's name being mentioned in more than one despatch.

The following are the details of Republican India's new awards won by members of the Armed Forces :—

INDIAN ARMY
Param Vir Chakra—4 (2 posthumous)
Maha Vir Chakra—41 (17 posthumous)
Vir Chakra—242 (49 posthumous)
Mention-in-Despatches—611 (29 posthumous)
INDIAN AIR FORCE
Maha Vir Chakra—3
Vir Chakra—30 (1 posthumous)

The new gallantry decorations awarded by the Republic of India will be the first in order of precedence for wearing medals by the Defence Services with effect from January 26, 1950. Campaign medals to be instituted on or after January 26 1950 will come next. Commemorative medals, *e.g.* Independence Medal awarded on August 15, 1947 will follow Campaign Medals and State Medals and Commonwealth awards will come last.

AFTER AUGUST

A short sketch of the work of the Indian Armed Forces after August 1947 may be given here.

Unprecedented disturbances broke out in the Punjab in the weeks following the partition of the country, resulting in large scale movement of population. The Army, whose aid was sought for tackling the problem set up in September, 1947, a Military Evacuation Organisation on which fell the responsibility for rescue and movement of hundreds of thousands of refugees between the two new Dominions. Within six weeks the Organisation had moved 15 lakhs of Muslims to West Punjab and a larger number of non-Muslims from Pakistan to India. Foot convoys, which were the means of movement for the largest number of refugees were provided with military escort all along the route. The refugee trains were also escorted by the Military.

Unprecedented floods in the Punjab in October rendered the refugee routes unserviceable and Army Engineers worked hard and got them going within a week.

Hardly had the communal disturbances in the Punjab died down after partition in 1947, when the Indian Army was called upon to fight a prolonged campaign in Jammu and Kashmir to throw out large bands of raiders who had poured into the State at several points across the Pakistan border.

The main column of raiders drove down the Domel-Baramulla road, heading towards Srinagar. By capturing the Mahura powerhouse, 50 miles north-west of Srinagar they cut off the supply of electricity to the whole of the Kashmir Valley. Srinagar itself was in peril.

The Maharaja of Jammu and Kashmir and the National Conference leader, Sheikh Mohammed Abdullah, made a distress call to the Government of India on October 25 seeking military aid. The next day, the Maharaja signed the Instrument of Accession and the India Government took the decision to dispatch troops to Srinagar. The first batch of Indian troops was flown there on October 27, more than 100 civilian aircraft being pressed into service for this operation.

On the afternoon of November 8 Baramulla was cleared of raiders and the security of Srinagar ensured. By November 14, the invaders had been chased beyond Uri, 65 miles west of Srinagar.

In the meantime, the raiders had seized considerable territory in the Jammu province adjacent to the Pakistan border. The State forces which had already taken up positions near the Jammu-Pakistan frontier had been surrounded in Mirpur, Kotli, Punch, Jhangar, Naushera, Bhimber, Rajauri and Beri-Pattan. Rushing into Jammu, Indian troops first set about relieving the garrisons in these key towns and saved the lives of thousands of refugees who had taken shelter with them. They first linked up with Beri-Pattan and then took Naushera and Jhangar. A scratch column marched towards Kotli and brought out 15,000 refugees without loss of a single life. The garrison at Mirpur could not be relieved but it fought its way out with the refugees. Simultaneously, another column had set out from Uri towards Punch and reinforced the garrison there.

As winter gradually froze the fronts in Kashmir, fighting flared up in the Jammu province. A force of 6,000 raiders mounted a concentrated three-pronged offensive against Naushera on the night of February 6-7. Indian troops repulsed the attacks, inflicting heavy casualties, with 1,900 killed and many more wounded.

Jhangar, situated at the road-fork to Kotli and Mirpur, was reoccupied on March 18, which constituted a strategic gain for the Indian Army. The Indian garrison in Punch, though isolated and besieged, fought on bravely and repeated attacks and constant shelling by the raiders failed to reduce the town. The RIAF broke up a threatened raider assault and, flying constant sorties, evacuated nearly 35,000 refugees.

In the summer of 1948, the tempo of fighting on the Uri front increased. An Indian column, setting out from Handwara, north-east of Uri captured Tithwal, 18 miles from the border town of Muzaffarabad. At this stage Pakistan, began sending regular battalions to stem the tide of the westward Indian drive. Indian troops, however, halted Pakistan's counter-thrusts, and set up a firm base at Uri.

On the Jammu front Indian troops advanced from Naushera to Chingas and then on to Rajauri, which fell to them on April 12, after fierce resistance by the invaders. Two Indian columns, one driving from its base in Rajauri and another from Punch, met at Potna on June 16, a village on the Rajauri-Thanamandi-Punch track. After the link-up, a small force penetrating into the raider-held Mendhar valley, rescued several hundred refugees and brought them to safety. In the Naushera sector, Indian troops captured Sadabad and Samani early in June 1948, two important features commanding Indian positions around Naushera. Jhangar, the Indians' forward most position on the Jammu front, was subjected to determined attacks, which were all repulsed.

A record in the history of armoured warfare was the capture of Dras and Kargil when on November 1 light tanks of the 7th Light Cavalry drove through snow-capped and boggy tracks and over rock-like glaciers, crossed Zoji La at an altitude of 12,000 feet.

It was on November 20 that Indian troops in two columns, forking out from their base in the Jammu province, effected a link-up with the Punch garrison after a siege lasting twelve months which will go down in history as one of the most outstanding achievements of the Army and Air Force.

Owing to deterioration in the internal situation of Hyderabad State, consequent on the atrocities committed by the militant organisation of Razakars under a man called Kasim Razvi the Indian Union was forced to resort to "police" action in the State.

Indian troops entered Hyderabad territory on the morning of September 13, 1948, and marched along the main Sholapur-Secunderabad road to re-garrison Secunderabad and restore confidence among the panic-stricken people. Another column marched simultaneously from Vijayawada to Hyderabad. Whatever resistance Indian forces met with was from fanatical Razakars; the State forces simply fell back and back on Hyderabad City.

A note on the assistance given by the Nepal Government would be in order here. In response to a request made by the Government of India for help to maintain law and order within the Country, the Government of Nepal readily agreed to loan India a contingent of Nepalese troops consisting of ten battalions who arrived in India in August 1948. This timely help made it possible for regular Indian troops to be relieved of internal security duties for employment elsewhere in India. The contingent returned to Nepal in January 1949 when the internal security position improved.

NATIONAL DEFENCE ACADEMY

The Prime Minister, Pandit Nehru, laid the foundation stone on October 6, 1949, of the buildings for the National Defence Academy at Kharakvasala, near Poona, an institution intended to provide basic training for officers in the Army, the Navy and the Air Force. As the construction of buildings will take some time, the scheme has been implemented by the addition of an Inter-Services Wing to the Indian Military Academy at Dehra Dun which commenced training officers for the three Services from January 4, 1949. The new institution, which was then named as Armed Forces Academy, is now re-designated the National Defence Academy, and the Inter-Services Wing is now known as the Joint Services Wing. When the National Defence Academy starts functioning at Kharakvasala, the Dehra Dun Academy will be incorporated into the National Defence Academy.

The cadets receive two years' basic training at the Joint Services Wing of the Academy. The Naval and Air Force cadets will later proceed for advanced training to their respective establishments, while the Army cadets will join the Military Wing of the Academy for a further two years' course.

Commandant, National Defence Academy, Dehra Dun : Brig. M. S. Wadalia.

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

(*a*) **Lawrence Schools**.—From funds raised from the public three schools were established one at Sanawar, in the Simla Hills, the other at Lovedale in the Nilgiri Hills and the third at Mount Abu for the benefit of the children of the British soldiers serving in India. After the partition, these schools could no longer function for the limited purpose of imparting education to the children of British troops,

and as a result of the committee set up to examine and make recommendations as to their continuance and future development it has been decided to reorganise the schools at Sanawar and Lovedale as public schools to be run by the Ministry of Education.

(*b*) **King George's Military College.**—There are 4 institutions of this kind at Jullundur, Ajmer, Belgaum and Bangalore. These institutions were established for the purpose of providing education for the sons of Indian soldiers which would fit them for an Army career. Admission to these colleges is open to sons of Junior Commissioned Officers and other ranks, who have served or are serving in the regular Indian Army, Warrant Officers and Ratings of the Royal Indian Navy and Warrant Officers and other ranks of the Royal Indian Air Force. It has been decided to review the working of these colleges, and for that purpose a Committee has been set up with wide terms of reference.

(*c*) **School of Foreign Languages.**—A school of foreign languages was established on February 1, 1949, at New Delhi to impart instruction in certain foreign languages to officers of the Armed Forces who are required to know certain foreign languages. As facilities for the teaching of foreign languages do not exist in this country to the necessary extent, it was decided to start a regular school for the purpose.

Other Ministries have also taken advantage of this school, and a large number of civilian officers and Non-Gazetted staff from them have been attending the school during this period.

(*d*) **School of Military Engineering.**—The school was started during the war in 1943, at Roorkee. It gives newly Commissioned Officers technical, tactical and administrative training in Military Engineering. After the partition this school was transferred to Kirkee near Poona. A permanent building for the school is now under construction.

(*e*) **Armed Forces Medical College.**—This institution was established by the amalgamation of the following war time units :—

Army Medical Training Centre, Poona.

Army School of Hygiene.

Army School of Radiology.

Central Military Pathology Laboratory and Blood Transfusion Unit.

For Clinical Training, Military Hospital, Poona (Post-Graduate) a thousand bedded hospital is available for the College students.

The College trains junior and senior medical officers and specialists in various branches of the medical profession. Other Ranks are also given training in various technical branches to Laboratory Assistants, Radiographers, Sanitary Assistants, Blood Transfusion Orderlies and Dispensers. The Institution also provides the Armed Forces will all biological and chemical reagents for diagnosis of the diseases and blood transfusion material and equipment. It also manufactures dry plasma for transfusion purposes.

Applied research for prevention of diseases and maintenance of health is carried out in various departments of the College. Fundamental work in connection with these problems is also being prosecuted.

The following new departments were opened in the College during 1950 : Virus Research Unit ; Department of Anti-biotics ; Department of Chemistry and Entomology.

(*f*) **Staff College.**—A new staff college has been established after the partition at Wellington in the Nilgiri Hills, but the permanent location of this institution has not yet been decided. The new staff college is intended to meet the requirements of the three Services and when the college materialises an important step will have been taken towards the close integration of staff training of the three Services.

(*g*) **The Air Technical College.**—It is essential for the Air Force to have a sufficient number of people adequately trained in all the technical aspects of aircraft maintenance in perfect air-worthy condition. For this purpose, it has been decided to establish an Air Technical Training College. The planning and arrangements for its establishment have now been completed and it was expected that the College would start functioning in July 1949. In the first instance the College would be staffed by European instructors but it is expected that Indians will be able to take over in 5 years.

(*h*) **Naval Schools.**—The Navy lost practically all its important Training Schools almost all of which were located in Karachi. These have now been re-created at Cochin. They are all housed in temporary structures, which it is hoped will be replaced by permanent ones over a period of years.

There are a number of other Training Institutions which have had to be established or reorganised to meet the needs of one or the other of the Services. In spite of the existence of these establishments, it is still necessary to send officers and men for training abroad. That necessity will continue for some years to come. It is with some difficulty, however, that the requisite number of vacancies at the Training Institutions abroad are secured.

INDIAN SOLDIERS', SAILORS', AND AIRMEN'S BOARD

These Boards are probably the most important and valuable non-official institutions connected with the Armed Forces. They were constituted in 1919, in place of the Central Recruiting Board, the purpose of which was fulfilled with the end of the First World War. The object was at the outset to deal with a number of post-war problems—the finding of employment for ex-Servicemen released from the colours, the relief of the dependents of those who had lost their lives in the war and of those who were incapacitated for further service, the education of ex-Servicemen's children and the safeguarding of the general interests of Serving personnel and their dependents. As years passed, the Board had gradually to adjust itself to normal peace conditions and it was decided to maintain it permanently for a series of duties which have from time to time expanded and developed.

The Board on 31 December 1922 had the residue of the war fund, known as the Imperial Indian War Relief Fund handed over to it. This formed the nucleus of its finances. The latter have since been husbanded with great care. The face value of the securities constituting the fund amounted on 31 March 1950 to Rs. 11,97,700, bearing an annual interest of Rs. 35,931.

The Board has its seat at New Delhi and co-ordinates the activities of State Boards which exist in each State. Under the control of these State Boards there exists throughout the country a network of District Boards reinforced in some cases by Tehsil or Taluka Committees and other kindred bodies.

Meetings of Indian S.S. and A. Board are normally held once a year.

The State Board is at the head of the State organisation and is normally located at the capital of the State. The Patron of the Board is H.E. the Governor and the President is the Chief Minister (or a Minister nominated by the Patron). The Secretary is usually a civilian officer in the State Secretariat, attending to these duties in addition to his own. But with a view to strengthening the organisation whole-time ex-army or State Service officer have been appointed in replacement of the part-time Secretaries in some of the State Boards.

The working unit is the District S. S. and A. Board, normally located adjacent to the Deputy Commissioner's or the Collector's office. These Boards are established in all districts from which recruits have been obtained in sufficient numbers. The President of the Board is the Collector or the Deputy Commissioner. Each Board has a paid Secretary, usually an ex-I.C.O. or ex-J.C.O.

In the more heavily-recruited districts, Tehsil or Zail sub-committees are formed with the Tehsildar, Zaildar or Mamlatdar as President and an Honorary Secretary, where necessary. These sub-committees are represented on the District S.S. and A. Board.

In February 1947, Army Headquarters appointed Recruiting officers as Military Vice-Presidents with the express object of frequently touring areas covered by a fixed number of District S. S. & A. Boards.

From 79 District S.S. & A. Boards in 1939 when World War II broke out, the number has now risen to 174 in all.

OBJECTS

The following are the objects and duties of the District Soldiers', Sailors,' and Airmen's Boards :—

(*a*) Constantly to endeavour to promote and maintain a feeling of good-will between the civilian and military classes ;

(*b*) To give all possible assistance to the President of the Board in his capacity as head of the district in all administrative matters connected with the ex-Serviceman or his family ;

(*c*) To demonstrate the benefit of and so promote the desire for mutual co-operation between ex-Serviceman and civilian officials ;

(*d*) To represent and explain to the civil authorities all matters of particular moment to ex-Serviceman that require the attention of the local administration ;

(*e*) Generally to watch over the welfare of the ex-Serviceman and his family, and the interests of serving personnel absent from home, with their units.

As regards item (*e*), quoted above, the function of the Board and corresponding organisations cover a wide range. Their main tasks are enumerated below :—

(*a*) To ascertain and intimate the whereabouts of an absent Serviceman to his dependents and to communicate to him news of all important matters affecting his family's welfare.

(*b*) To procure legal advice in the case of a law-suit against an absent Serviceman where there is no male member of his family capable of protecting his interests ;

(*c*) To assist an absent Serviceman's family in the event of disease or famine ;

(*d*) To assist ex-Seviceman and their dependents in securing medals, pensions, arrears of pay, etc. ;

(*e*) To investigate cases of ex-Seviceman invalided out of the Indian Armed Forces for chronic diseases such as tuberculosis, leprosy, diabetes, etc., and to report them to the State Branch of the Indian Red Cross Society for medical assistance ;

(*f*) To investigate applications for relief from the various military charitable funds.

Generally Boards, which have become the recognised centre to which the man comes when in trouble, have also attached to them information bureaux which are linked to the regional exchange organisation set up by the Ministry of Labour to find employment for ex-Servicemen.

The Board at present controls the Indian Soldiers', Sailors', and Airmen's Board Fund.

This fund was formed on December 31, 1922, out of Rs. 10 lakhs received from the Imperial Indian Relief Fund for the purpose, primarily of meeting expenditure in connection with the scheme worked through State and District Soldiers,' Sailors,' and Airmen's Board

for safeguarding the general interests of the Indian ex-Serviceman and secondly expenditure which might be considered desirable to incur on objects of cognate nature. Till Jan. 1, 1943 grants were made from this fund to meet the expenditure on the maintenance of District Boards. It is now used primarily for payment of special pensions to blinded ex-Servicemen, and to meet the expenditure on miscellaneous items such as bank charges, audit fees, etc., in connection with the administration of the fund.

The King Emperor's Patriotic fund which was started in July 1918, out of the gifts from the Ruling Princes to Their Majesties King George V and Queen Mary on the occasion of their Silver Wedding, for the purpose of affording educational facilities to the children of Indian ex-Servicemen was wound up as the balance was only Rs. 8,324-7-8 and allotted in equal amounts to the K.G.R.I.M. Schools at Jullunder, Ajmer, Belgaum and Bangalore for meeting expenses on their annual sports meetings.

OTHER FUNDS

The following Central funds which are not under the control of the Indian Soldiers', Sailors', and Airmen's Board deserve mention :

1. *Armed Forces Benevolent Fund.*—This fund exists primarily for the alleviation of distress among past and present members of the Indian Armed Forces and their dependents. This inter-services fund provides for relief grants to the disabled ex-Servicemen and dependents of those who lost their lives on active service and also for educational scholarships to children of ex-Servicemen killed in action.

The Defence Minister is the chairman of the General Committee of this fund, and the Defence Secretary is the Vice-President. The three Service Chiefs, the Adjutant General and the Financial Adviser are members of the board and the Secretary of the Indian Soldiers', Sailors', and Airmen's Board acts as its secretary.

2. *Flag Day Fund.*—The object of the Flag Day Fund is to provide relief for ex-Servicemen and amenities to serving personnel. The third Flag Day was organised on December 7, 1950 and contributions were collected from all parts of the country. The composition of the Managing and Working Committees of this fund is the same as for that of the Armed Forces Benevolent Fund. The 1949 collections amounted to nearly Rs. 13,21,000.

3. *Armed Forces Reconstruction Fund.*—The fund known as the Military Reconstruction Fund was initiated in 1942. The Government of India decided to contribute monthly to this fund at the rate of Rs. 2 for each combatant and Re. 1 for each non-combatant. Contribution to this Fund ceased on March 31, 1946. It was decided that 80 per cent of the fund should be distributed to Provinces and States to be administered by Provincial and State Committees and the remaining 20 per cent administered by a Central Committee. This Central portion of the Fund is known as "The Armed Forces Reconstruction Fund." This Fund was finally deemed to have been duly constituted on July 20, 1946.

The purposes of this fund are as follows :—

(*a*) Primarily as measures of a permanent nature to benefit those now serving and those who will in future serve in the ranks or as non-combatants enrolled in the Indian Armed Forces and their families. The fund will not normally be used to make individual grants.

(*b*) Education, family welfare in the Lines, Servicemen's and Servicewomen's welfare in the Lines, Collective care of the disabled, Grants to Soldiers', Sailors', and Airmen's Boards.

The Constitution of this Fund is the same as that of Armed Forces Benevolent Fund.

4. *The Army Central Welfare Fund.*—The object of this fund is to relieve distress among Indian Army Servicemen, ex-Servicemen and their dependents and to look after the welfare of the men and their families in the lines.

5. *The Indian Naval Benevolent (Association) Fund.*—This fund exists to relieve hardship or distress among certain categories of naval officers, ratings and their dependents.

6. *The Indian Navy Amenities Fund,*—This is a non-public fund maintained at Naval Headquarters and administered by :—

(*i*) The Commander-in-Chief, Indian Navy.
(*ii*) The Chief of Staff, Indian Navy.
(*iii*) The Chief of Administration, Indian Navy.
(*iv*) The Judge Advocate of the Fleet.
(*v*) The Chief of Personnel, Naval Headquarters.

Its income from investments and any grants made specially for expenditure during the year are utilised to make grants to Ships or Establishments for any welfare project or amenities (whether for officers or ratings) which commend themselves to the Administrators. The Sports Funds of Ships or Establishments are required to make quarterly contributions to the Indian Navy Amenities Fund and such contributions are treated as "Capital" and invested as and when occasion arises.

7. *The Indian Air Force Benevolent (Association) Fund.*—This fund exists to relieve hardship or distress among all ranks, past and present, of the Indian Air Force, and their dependents, especially those disabled by flying.

8. *The Indian Air Force Central Welfare Fund.*—This fund exists :—

(*a*) To assist messes, institutes and clubs both existing and to be formed, by grants and loans.

(*b*) To provide amenities such as indoor and outdoor games, radios, musical instruments, stage material, library books, etc. for Indian airmen.

(*c*) To make grants on behalf of the Indian Air Force charitable and philanthropic organisations which provide assistance to past and present members of the Indian Air Force and their dependents.

(*d*) To provide measures of a permanent nature for
(*i*) Servicemen's Education,
(*ii*) Family Welfare in lines,
(*iii*) Collective care of disabled Airmen, and
(*iv*) Grants to Soldiers', Sailors', and Airmen's Boards.

(*e*) To provide Maternity and Child Welfare facilities and Women's Institutes for families of Royal Indian Air Force Airmen.

(*f*) To provide assistance in the education of Airmen's children.

(*g*) To assist in construction of sports grounds at units, when such grounds are not provided at Government cost.

(*h*) To provide anything considered essential for the welfare and well-being of Indian Air Force personnel which is not provided at Government cost and is considered to be beyond the means of the personnel themselves.

ST. DUNSTAN'S (INDIA) FUND

St. Dunstan's (India) Fund is a charitable fund administered by a trust formed, under the Charitable Endowments Act, 1893, under the Chairmanship of the Hon'ble Defence Minister. The present assets of the Fund exceed Rs. 10 lakhs.

The predecessor body of this Fund, the Indian St. Dunstan's Committee opened a St. Dunstan's Training Centre in Dehra Dun in 1945 for the training of the war blinded servicemen in order to equip them with some trade of their choice. The main trades taught were knitting, spinning, rope and net making, blanket and cloth weaving, mat, basket and newar making. About 250 men have returned to their homes after receiving training at this institution and a grant for their resettlement. As the number of war blinded trainees was considerably reduced, the institution was made over to the Ministry of Education for the training of the civilian adult blind.

A skeleton After-Care Organisation of St. Dunstan's has been set up at Dehra Dun under the chairmanship of the Commandant, National Defence Academy. This Organisation will continue to render assistance and advice to the war-blinded ex-Servicemen, in their multifarious problems and try to resettle them in the place of their choice and to make them, as far as possible, economically independent.

THE CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT

(Note.—Old place names are retained in this section as they are still used in official reports such as those published by the Reserve Bank).

The outstanding feature of the rural economy of India is the appalling poverty of the rural population. The various estimates, official and non-official, that have been made of the income per head of population at various times leaves the matter absolutely in no doubt. The Central Banking Enquiry Committee (1931) estimated that the average income of an agriculturist did not work out at a higher figure than Rs. 42 a year. The extent of an average holding, which is about 6 acres, for an agricultural family of 5 persons is too inadequate to maintain it in ordinary comfort even with the low standard of living which is so characteristic of the rural population. Moreover, cultivation is in a large measure exposed to the vagaries of the monsoon. In every 5 years there is but one good year, one bad year and three indifferent years. These unfavourable conditions might be mitigated to some extent by a well conceived policy of irrigation by the State ; but so far, of the total cultivated area in the country, about 16 per cent. only has irrigation facilities from rivers, tanks or wells while the remaining 84 per cent. depends wholly on rainfall. Thus the frequency of failure of crops, owing to drought and floods, frost and posts, coupled with the low vitality and high mortality of the live-stock, render the economic position of the cultivator worse still. The inadequacy of the subsidiary occupation to supplement the slender income from agriculture contributes further to his extreme economic weakness. He has sufficient spare time on his hands to devote himself to subsidiary occupations but he has been exposed to the full blast of the competition of forces from the rest of the world and many of the industries on which he relied in the past have suffered largely from, or been wiped out by the competition of machine-made articles. He is now being drawn steadily into the sphere of influence of markets both national and international and he has neither the organisation nor the credit facilities to help him as in countries like the United States of America or Canada or some of the European countries. Though the recent rise in the prices of agricultural products has benefited him, his position remains essentially weak. In addition to these numerous difficulties, the agriculturist has another serious handicap in that he is largely illiterate. The percentage of literacy in India is still very low being only 13 per cent. and any progress in agriculture is well-nigh impossible without the background of general education. All these factors lead to what is the most outstanding feature of the rural economy of India—the chronic and almost hopeless indebtedness of the cultivator.

RURAL INDEBTEDNESS

The Central Banking Enquiry Committee has estimated that the total rural indebtedness of India was about Rs. 900 crores. The great rise in prices during the war and post-war period has lightened this burden and it may be fair to assume that rural indebtedness has come down to Rs. 500 crores. This colossal burden of debt is the root problem which has got to be faced in any attempt towards the economic regeneration of the masses. A peculiar feature of this indebtedness is that the debt which remains unpaid during the lifetime of the cultivator who contracts it passes on as a burden to his heirs, so that many agriculturists start their career with a heavy burden of ancestral debt which they in their turn pass on with some further increase to their successors. Ignorance and improvidence, extravagance and conservatism have further been held as the reasons for the continued growth of this heavy load. A marriage festival in the family tempts the cultivator to launch out into extravagance while funeral ceremonies prove no less costly. All these factors—the uneconomic nature of the agricultural industry, the chronic and heavy indebtedness and illiteracy all form a thoroughly depressing background to the rural economy of the country.

It is no wonder that under the circumstances detailed above the agriculturist has constant recourse to borrowing and that too not only for any permanent improvement that he may contemplate but for his current agricultural needs as also for periodical unproductive purposes such as weddings and funeral ceremonies. The absence of any banking organisation in the country-side has driven him into the arms of the *sowcar* or the *mahajan* who, while proving a very accommodating person, has acquired a grip on him from which the cultivator has found it impossible to extricate himself. The usurious rates of interest charged, coupled with various devices which increase still further the actual rate of interest, and the numerous services which the *sowcar* performs as a retail tradesman and the buyer of the cultivator's produce, make the *sowcar* the dominant force in the village, reducing the agriculturist to a position of absolute serfdom.

In 1883 the Land Improvements Loans Act was passed and this was followed in the next year by the Agriculturists' Loan Act enabling Government to advance loans repayable by easy instalments and at low rates of interest for improvements and also for current agricultural needs. In 1899 a Madras civilian submitted a report to the Madras Government on the possibility of introducing land and agricultural banks and the discussion thus initiated by him was continued by Mr. Dupernex, U.P. civilian in his "Peoples Banks for Northern India" (1900). The caste system of the Hindus and the ideas of common brotherhood among the Moslems were evidences of the peoples' natural aptitude for co-operation and the *nidhis* of Southern India furnished a practical proof of this aptitude. In 1901 the Government of the day appointed a committee to consider the question of the establishment of agricultural banks and the report of this committee resulted in the passing of the Co-operative Credit Societies' Act of 1904. The co-operative movement was thus launched in the country on the 25th March, 1904. The Act aimed at encouraging thrift, self-help and co-operation among agriculturists, artisans and persons of limited means and the societies that were to be started were intended to be small simple credit societies for small and simple folks with simple needs and requiring small sums only. Knowledge of and confidence in their fellow members which are the keynote of success were ensured by providing that a society should consist of persons residing in the same town or village or group of villages and should be members of the same tribe, class or caste. In order to provide facilities in urban areas for the small man, urban societies were also permitted. The Act introduced the principle of unlimited liability for rural societies. The local Governments were empowered to appoint special officers called Registrars of Co-operative Societies, whose duty it would be to register societies formed under the Act, to get the accounts of such societies audited by a member of their staff and in general to see that the societies worked well. The seed thus sown has grown in the course of 45 years into a fine tree with twigs and branches, spread out in many directions.

Since the launching of the movement in 1904, there have been amendments of the co-operative law and committees and commissions of enquiry to remedy defects and to suggest further lines of action.

GROWTH OF CO-OPERATION

In the first few years of the movement the number of societies grew very slowly but the growth was considerably accelerated from 1910 and the average number of societies from 1910 to 1915 was about 12,000. The pace of growth still further quickened after 1915 and now there are 135,083 agricultural societies and 27,842 non-agricultural ones. Table 1 shows the distribution of these societies by Provinces, States and States' Unions. It will appear from the table that progress in different parts has not been uniform. United Provinces and Madras have large number of societies while other major Provinces like Bombay, Bihar, Central Provinces and Berar and Assam show smaller figures. East Punjab with 12,978 societies comes first in the number of societies (92.0) per one lakh inhabitants, while West Bengal comes second in that respect with 66.9. The progress in smaller areas, like Coorg and Ajmer, must be regarded as very satisfactory in view of their small population, since the number of societies per one lakh inhabitants works out in their case at 169.0 and 156.5 respectively. It is satisfactory to note that the co-operative movement has also spread in the States formerly ruled by Princes. Even more instructive are the figures in Table 2. The total number of members of primary societies stands on the 30th of June 1949 at 127 lakhs. Taking the normal family at a little under 5, it is clear, that about 6½ crores of people in India are being served by this movement. There is no single movement rural or urban fraught with such tremendous possibilities for the uplift of the masses as the co-operative movement and there is no other movement which affects such a large percentage of the population. Among the Provinces Bombay and Madras lead in the number of members of societies, 58.6 and 53.6 per one thousand inhabitants respectively, East Punjab and United Provinces, rank thereafter. This shows that the size of societies varies in different States and that Bombay, while having a smaller number of societies, has a larger average of membership per society as compared with the other Provinces. Of the smaller areas, Coorg takes a leading place with 223.3 members per one thousand inhabitants, while Hyderabad has an average of 81.6. Membership is a much better test in many respects of progress than the number of societies and from this point of view, the progress in Madras, Bombay, Coorg and Hyderabad must be regarded as quite satisfactory. There is also a third aspect of the growth of the movement. The number of societies, or the membership in the societies alone is not an index of the work that is being done and of the benefits which are being conferred by the movement. The societies are predominantly credit organisations or rather small banking institutions and the part that they play can be better appreciated from their working capital than from the number of members. In this direction the rapid progress so far achieved by the movement should also be noted. From about Rs. 68 lakhs, which was the average up to 1910, the working capital has advanced very rapidly and stands in 1949 at about Rs. 2,20 crores. It is gratifying to note from Table 3 that this large sum has been derived mostly from non-Government sources. The share capital, reserve fund and deposits from members together constitute above Rs. 85 crores and this is really owned capital, that is to say members' own money. The State (Provincial) or Central banks and other societies contribute a little less —56 crores while the non-members or the outside public contribute about 55 crores. This latter item shows to a remarkable extent the growth of public confidence in co-operative institutions and speaks well in general of the management of the societies and the very useful purpose they serve in the banking organisation of the country. The distribution of the working capital by States gives us a further insight into the progress made in this direction by the co-operative movement in different parts of India. Bombay leads in their respect with 339 annas per head of population. Madras, West Bengal and Punjab come next with 211, 133 and 121. Among the smaller areas, Coorg comes out first with 381 annas per head of population while Ajmer comes second with 174. Of the State

and States Unions Mysore, Madhya Bharat, Hyderabad and Cochin have 91, 72, 68 and 100 respectively. Bombay is easily first in the matter of deposits from members which amount to more than 11½ crores out of a total working capital of 66 crores and this is one of the best tests of the success of a co-operative society. It is obvious from a glance at the figures in the tables that there has been very rapid progress in the number of societies, in their membership and in the working capital of these societies. Bombay and Madras lead in many respects, Uttar Pradesh showing a spurt in recent years. The smaller areas and the former Princely States have also achieved considerable progress though the movement there started comparatively later. The agricultural societies predominate in all the States while non-agricultural, that is, urban societies show a much slower development. But before we proceed, we must explain the chief component parts of the structure as it has now been built up.

FINANCIAL STRUCTURE OF THE MOVEMENT

Apart from the comparatively few co-operative societies at present working for non-credit purposes, whether in urban or rural areas, a co-operative society largely means a small bank or a credit institution for providing financial accommodation to its members on a co-operative basis. Of these credit institutions, by far the greater proportion is rural. The rural credit society has, for its main purpose, the financing of the agriculturist and as such it needs funds. The original idea of co-operative credit lies in making available to the needy the surplus of the well-to-do brethren through the medium of the society but in the villages, the well-to-do and the needy rather form distinct groups, the former playing or trying to play the *sowcar*. Thus instead of comprising more or less all sections of the population of the village, a society is very largely made up of the needy section. Even if it was not, the slender savings of the well-to-do would not be enough to meet the wants of the needy and a village society cannot, therefore, be self-sufficient, making available the deposits of its well-to-do members as loans for the needy ones. The heavy load of unproductive debt of the average farmer, his habit of investing his savings, if any, in lands and ornaments, his illiteracy and consequent lack of the banking habit, soon made it apparent that rural credit societies could not be expected to raise the required funds in deposits either from members or locally. The question of funds for the working of a rural co-operative society thus becomes a vital question indeed. Central banks have therefore been brought into existence at the district headquarters in order to raise money from towns and make it available to the primary rural societies. Following up the idea further, It has been found necessary to have a provincial bank at the provincial headquarters to serve as a balancing centre for the central banks and to make available larger funds for the primary societies through the central banking institutions. The financial structure of the co-operative movement is thus largely composed of three parts—(*i*) the Agricultural Credit Society, (*ii*) the Central Financing Agencies, and (*iii*) the State Banks. Obviously one more part in the structure seems possible and desirable, namely, an Apex All-India Co-operative Bank. So far, however, such a bank has not been started though the provincial banks of India have an Indian Provincial Co-operative Banks Association.

AGRICULTURAL CREDIT SOCIETIES

The success of these societies is closely related to their very peculiar constitution. In an ordinary joint-stock company, a member is liable only to the extent of the value of his share holding and his liability is therefore limited; but in the case of agricultural credit societies, the liability is unlimited, that is to say, members are jointly and severally liable to the creditors of the society for the full amount of the debts incurred by it.

Credit is a blessing only if turned to productive account; if used up for unproductive purposes, it is a curse. It would enrich the producer but it would only impoverish the consumer. The agriculturist needs money for productive purposes such as his current agricultural needs, land improvement, purchase of stock and implements, manures and seeds, as also for unproductive purposes, such as repayment of old debts, weddings and funerals. In such circumstances, it is imperative for the management of a rural co-operative society very carefully to scrutinise the loan applications and examine the purpose for which loans have been asked and to see that the loan when sanctioned is used for the specific purpose. And yet it is this very respect that co-operative societies have fallen short in their duty.

THEIR RESOURCES

The funds of an agricultural credit society are raised from entrance fees, share capital, deposits or loans from non-members, loans from the central or provincial banks, loans from Government and the reserve fund. The income from entrance fees and share capital is small compared with the financial requirements of the members. A large source from which funds are derived is deposits and loans. Loans from central banks in fact furnish the bulk of the working capital of these agricultural credit societies at present.

Low dividends and voluntary services resulting in low cost of management have made it possible to divert a substantial proportion of the profits of these societies to reserve funds, and thereby provide against unforeseen losses, bad debts and losses on the realisation of certain assets such as by investment depreciation. The general practice in regard to the use of the reserve fund in the business of the societies is that it is used as ordinary working capital.

The funds collected by the agricultural societies in India are at present by no means negligible. They aggregate to about 45½ crores of rupees. Their financial position as on the 30th of June 1949 stood thus :—

	In thousands of rupees
Share Capital	9,72,04
Reserve and other Funds ..	9,64,54
Deposits	5,72,61
Loans	20,31,55
Total Working Capital ..	45,40,74

The figures show that these tiny agricultural societies work with about Rs. 25 crores of their own capital (including members' deposits in this head) as against their outside borrowed capital of about Rs. 20 crores. The owned capital was thus about 56 per cent. of their total working capital, and this proportion is rising steadily as years pass.

CENTRAL FINANCING AGENCIES

The formation of banks in urban areas on co-operative principles, with the sole object of raising funds for advances to societies having been found necessary to place the financial structure of the movement on a sound basis, the Co-operative Act of 1904 was amended in 1912, and the Co-operative Societies Act II of that year provided for the registration of central banks with the sole object of financing societies.

Thereafter the number of central financing agencies grew rapidly specially in the Punjab, West Bengal and United Provinces. The function of these central societies was not only to supply the required capital to the primary societies but also to make the surplus resources of some societies available to other societies suffering from a deficiency of funds and to provide proper guidance to and inspection over them. On 30th June 1949 the number of central banks was 484.

There are four main sources from which a central bank derives its working capital which stood in 1948-49 at 48 crores: (*a*) Share Capital, (*b*) Reserve, (*c*) Deposits, (*d*) Loans.

The paid-up share capital and reserves of central banks constitute the owned resources of these banks as distinguished from borrowed resources and provide the guarantee fund against which additional funds are raised by them in the shape of deposits or loans. It is usual to prescribe a suitable proportion between the owned and borrowed resources of central banks in each State. The most usual proportion observed in practice between the borrowed and owned resources is 1 to 8. Deposits from members and non-members constitute the bulk of the borrowed capital of central banks. The total amount of deposits held by central banks in the year 1948-49 from individuals and other sources amounted to Rs. 22 crores and from primary societies to Rs. 9 crores. Deposits in central banks are mainly of two kinds, *viz.*, savings and fixed. Current deposits are not universal but confined only to selected central banks in selected areas. The principle usually observed by these banks is not to grant loans to societies for periods longer than those for which deposits are available, and where loans for long periods are advanced the periods of deposits are also comparatively long. In addition to funds obtained by deposits, central banks raise loans from outside banks, from other central banks, from the local provincial bank and from Government. The total amount of loans held by the central banks in 1948-49 from outside banks, from other co-operative banks and from the provincial banks was Rs. 8¼ crores and from Government Rs. 97 lakhs. Central Banks ordinarily do not directly borrow loans from Government, but, in recent years East Punjab, Madras, Orissa and Bombay have held Rs. 15½, 10½, 7 and 7 lakhs respectively. This practice was more common in the States and States' Unions, where Madhya Bharat, Kashmir, Hyderabad, Bhopal and Cochin hold from their Governments Rs. 34, 8½, 2½, 2 and 2 lakhs respectively. Borrowings from outside banks are generally confined to accommodation obtained from the Reserve Bank against Government Securities or Promissory Notes executed by societies in favour of the Central Bank and endorsed by the latter in favour of the Reserve Bank. This accommodation is, however, limited and advances from other joint-stock banks are also now rare. The main source of loans is, therefore, the provincial bank, and where a provincial bank exists, the central banks are generally prohibited from having any direct dealings with either the Reserve Bank or any other joint-stock bank or with one another. This rule is, however, not rigidly observed in Punjab and Madras. Several central banks, because of their long standing, possess sufficient resources to be independent of any outside financial assistance but they all continue credit arrangements mainly with the provincial bank on which they rely for emergencies.

In the initial stages, several central banks developed from ordinary urban societies which granted advances to individual shareholders. A few of such central banks have continued the practice and the amount advanced by central banks to individual members during the year 1948-49 was Rs. 8 crores chiefly in Bombay and Central Provinces and Berar. Advances are made to individuals on the pledge of agricultural produce, thus combining trading with banking which is against sound banking principles and is thus roughly unco-operative since they finance the very middlemen whom co-operative sale seeks to eliminate. Besides, such advances encroach upon the domain of

marketing finance and hamper the growth of co-operative marketing. The total advances made by central banks to societies at the end of the year 1948-49 amounted to over Rs. 55 crores.

After meeting management expenses the profits of central banks are distributed as allocations to reserves and dividends to shareholders. The combined net profits of the 484 central banks of the country during the year 1948-49 amounted to Rs. 46 lakhs on the total working capital of Rs. 48 crores; the rate of dividend paid varied from 3 to 6 per cent. in different parts of the country but the most usual rate paid was 6 per cent. per annum.

PROVINCIAL CO-OPERATIVE BANKS

At present, all the major Provinces have apex banks functioning in them. There are also apex institutions in Mysore and Hyderabad. There are 12 such institutions in the whole country. The constitutions of these institutions vary considerably; but the functions of all these institutions are more or less the same, namely, the co-ordination of the work of the central banks and provincialisation of finance in them. It is found that in a large majority of the apex banks the constitution is a mixed one, that is, both in the general body of the banks as well as in the directorate, there are individual shareholders as well as representatives of co-operative societies and central banks.

All apex banks in the Union depend for their working capital largely on deposits from the affiliated co-operative societies as also from the public. It is, therefore, thought necessary to insist upon the maintenance of fluid resources on a certain scale and in some States the Government has prescribed definite rules with regard to the maintenance of fluid resources. The period for which deposits are accepted determines the maximum period for which they can lend out these borrowed funds to their clients, and in every Province and State the apex bank has fixed for itself a maximum term, beyond which no loans are, in general, sanctioned.

While accepting deposits from co-operative banks and the general public, most of the apex banks have also dealings in current account with the latter. The Punjab apex bank does not encourage such accounts with individual non-members, as it does not wish to enter into competition with central banks. Apex banks also generally carry on ordinary banking business, such as collecting *hundis* and dividends from companies and collecting pay and pensions. The provincial banks of Bombay, Madras and Punjab have floated long-term debentures. The Bombay bank has so far issued debentures of the value of Rs. 9·8 lakhs and these debentures are recognised as a trustee security. The bank at Madras has floated debentures of the value of 2·18 lakhs on the security of a floating charge of the general assets of the bank, while the Punjab bank has issued debentures of the value of 5 lakhs. As in every banking institution, these banks are also frequently troubled with surpluses and deficits, though at different times in different institutions. There is therefore interlending of surplus funds between these apex banks, and during the period of shortage of funds, deposits are accepted from surplusing banks, and some of them call for special season deposits allowing favourable rates of interest to tide over the period of shortage. The Indian Provincial Co-operative Banks' Association enables the member banks to ascertain which of them are surplusing in the period and by correspondence to arrange for inter-provincial borrowings.

OVERDUES

Among the most important tests of the success or otherwise of a co-operative credit society is undoubtedly the promptness in repayment of loans by members, and it is in this respect that one has to recognise that the societies have not attained any very great measure of success. On 30th June 1949, the overdue loans in agricultural societies amounted to Rs. 4,60,35,519 as compared with Rs. 4,12,55,090 the year before; the working capital of the agricultural societies was Rs. 45,40,73,951; the loans due by individuals were Rs. 23,65,19,863. The overdue loans were therefore 10 per cent. of the working capital and 19 per cent. of the total loans due by individuals. The position is, however, rendered more serious when one realises that the figures are considerably obscured by book entries and extensions of the date of repayment and in some cases, by the farmers' borrowing from the *sowcar* to pay the society's dues and that the percentages represent merely an average for the Union. The table below shows the position in different regions on 30th June 1949.

LAND MORTGAGE BANKS

The loans advanced by co-operative societies to their members and by the central financing agencies to their constituent societies are, from the very nature of the source from which they derive the bulk of their finance, for short or intermediate terms only. By concentrating upon the growth and multiplication of rural credit societies and thus upon facilities for sh t and intermediate term loans, the co-operative movement did not provide for the redemption of old debts or for increasing the earnings of agriculturists which alone would prevent any further increase in their debts and pave the way for the paying off of the old ones. And it is to supply the need for long-term loans to the agriculturists for land improvement and for the redemption of old debts that land mortgage banks have come into existence.

There are three main types of such banks. The strictly co-operative type is an association of borrowers who raise credit by the issue of mortgage bonds bearing interest and made payable to bearer. The commercial type works for profit and declares dividends. The third type—the quasi co-operative—has a mixed membership of borrowers and non-borrowers, operating over fairly large areas and formed with share capital and on a limited liability basis. The banks organised so far in the country are of the co-operative type, though strictly speaking they belong to the quasi co-operative variety, admitting as they do to the membership a few non-borrowing individuals for attracting initial capital as well as business talent, organising capacity and efficient management.

Bombay, for instance, has 19 land mortgage societies and a central Land Mortgage Bank, which have been successfully carrying on their business. Bengal has 2, Assam 2, Central Provinces and Berar 23, while Madras has 119 primary land mortgage banks and a central land mortgage bank. Orissa, Mysore and Cochin, each has a Central land mortgage bank and Mysore has 79 primary and mortgage societies. It is too early to pronounce on the success or otherwise of these few banks. The bulk of the funds of these banks have to be raised by debentures and for these purposes there will have to be in the States central land mortgage banks as in Madras, Bombay, Orissa and Mysore. Government will have also to render assistance to these institutions for the success of the debenture issue, and its guaranteeing the interest ought to meet all reasonable needs, though in special cases there would not be much harm in the Government's purchasing debentures of a certain value. The recent rise in the value of agricultural lands has tempted the agriculturist to sell one or more of the plots he holds and pay off a large part of his debts to the *sowcar* and to the Land Mortgage Bank from the price realised, so that the business of the land mortgage banks has been decreasing considerably. This factor with the low yield on investments has been causing some anxiety.

Overdue Loans in Agricultural Societies, 1946-47
(in lakhs of rupees)

Administrative Area.	Working capital	Loans due by individuals	Overdue loans by individuals	Percentage of overdue loans to	
				Working capital	Loans due
Madras	12,06	7,76	1,46	12	19
Bombay	14,10	4,78	1,02	7	21
West Bengal	1,38	63	37	24	59
Bihar	1,05	30	9	9	30
Orissa	77	56	19	25	34
United Provinces	3,36	2,31	38	11	16
East Punjab	3,23	1,61	35	11	22
Central Provinces and Berar	1,77	1,22	26	15	21
Assam	9	4	2	22	50
Mysore	79	49	10	13	20
Hyderabad	3,32	1,61	..	..	..
Madhya Bharat	1,28	1,05	..	..	..
Kashmir	39	19	7	18	37
Travancore-Cochin ..	42	18	12	29	67
Total ..	45,41	23,65	4,60	(average) 10	(average) 19

The operations of the Land Mortgage Banks and Societies in India during 1948-49 were as under :—

Number of Banks 5, with membership 8,127.

Number of Societies 263 with membership 171,911.

	Rs.	Rs.
Share Capital ..	23,78,790	41,39,131
Debentures from the public ..	5,11,45,354	8,99,877
Debentures from Government ..	15,44,590	4,810
Deposits	8,90,528	3,97,299
Reserve fund ..	20,36,987	9,78,447
Other funds ..	6,74,747	3,12,067
Loans	10,63,610	4,47,07,930
Working Capital ..	5,97,34,606	5,14,39,561
Loans made to individuals ..	6,38,538	1,07,75,595
Loans made to Banks and Societies ..	97,00,936	6,84,249
Profit	3,04,681	1,68,045

In the initial stages of the movement, it fell on the Registrar to carry on propaganda and organise co-operative societies. For this purpose the assistance of non-official honorary workers was imperative and in the various States a band of such workers was brought into existence, who as honorary organisers of the district or talukas actively co-operated with the officials in carrying on propaganda, organising new societies as a result thereof and looking after the societies so started in some measure. With the rapid growth of co-operative societies, however, it was felt that for the further propagation of the movement it was desirable to carry on work by co-operators themselves in a more organised manner and for that purpose co-operative institutes were started in the various Provinces. In 1930, the All-India Co-operative Institutes' Association was established to co-ordinate the activities of the provincial institutes, to formulate non-official co-operative opinion on important co-operative problems from time to time and to encourage the growth of co-operative literature.

NON-CREDIT AGRICULTURAL CO-OPERATION

For some years past increasing attention has been directed to other forms of co-operation for the benefit of the rural population. Credit is but one of the needs of the cultivator ; its organisation through co-operation touches but the fringe of the problem ; and different provinces have been experimenting upon the application of co-operative organisation to meet their various non-credit needs. The problems of irrigation, consolidation of holdings, improved sanitation, fencing, cattle insurance, dairying and supply of agricultural requisites, and above all the marketing of agricultural produce have been therefore engaging the attention of co-operators, and societies for these purposes have been established here and there and have been working with varying success. In a land of ignorant and illiterate agriculturists, it would appear wiser to adopt the rule of one village, one society ; but the complexities of the non-credit forms of co-operation have induced the authorities to avoid the multi-purpose or general society and to favour the single purpose society, and we have the curious spectacle of an agriculturist being viewed as a person with a bundle of several needs, each one of which it is proposed to meet separately. A single society trying to meet all the needs of the agriculturist would attack the *sowcar* on all fronts and would become a live force in the village and tend to promote the ideal embodied in the famous phrase: Better living, better farming and better business. However, co-operative opinion is fast coming to accept the wisdom of this and discard the theory of almost water-tight compartments. The agricultural non-credit societies in India on the 30th June 1949 were 22,756 distributed as under : —

Non-Credit Agricultural Societies, 1948-49.

Administrative Area	Purchase and sale	Production	Production and sale	Other forms of co-operation	Total
Madras	418	....	525	707	1,650
Bombay	289	42	309	364	1,004
West Bengal	552	1,021	157	734	2,464
Bihar	60	....	4,938	....	4,998
Orissa	27	....	52	2	81
United Provinces	11	570	1,788	3,176	5,545
East Punjab	1	483	2,218	406	3,108
Central Provinces and Berar	820	17	3	....	840
Mysore	593	....	31	861	1,485
Hyderabad	138	....	7	190	335
Others	359	80	164	643	1,246
Total ..	3,268	2,213	10,192	7,083	22,756

Of these the most important are the marketing societies particularly for the sale of cotton in Bombay, and the consolidation of holdings and better living societies in the Punjab.

MARKETING SOCIETIES

Marketing of Agricultural produce is the real crux of the whole question of rural prosperity and betterment, and as group marketing is always more effective than individual marketing especially in India where the individual producer is illiterate and constitutes a small unit, co-operative marketing has been accepted now as one of the most desirable ideals to work for. It is only the complexity of the working of co-operative sale societies, the difficulty of providing marketing finance, the lack of expert knowledge on the part of co-operative officials, and the lack of godown and storage facilities that have prevented the rapid multiplication of sale societies and their efficient working. The jute and paddy sale societies of West Bengal have not met with success, but the cotton grower in Gujarat, Khandesh and the Bombay Karnatak has reaped considerable benefit from the cotton sale societies. A few societies for the sale of other articles have also been organised in Bombay, such as for the sale of jaggery, tobacco, fruits and vegetables, chillies, paddy, onions and arecanut. West Bengal has several jute sale societies with a Jute Wholesale at Calcutta and paddy sale societies with a sale depot in Calcutta. East Punjab has several commission shops to provide storage facilities so that the grower could wait for better prices, but which sell to local merchants yet, rather than to the merchants at the port. Madras has a number of sale societies, but their transaction is small and they have not yet made much progress. The United Provinces have organised the sale of sugar-cane very effectively through Sugar-cane Societies and the Marketing Union. Recently provincial co-operative marketing societies have been started with Government encouragement and assistance in Madras and Bombay the results of the working of which will be watched with great interest by co-operators all over the country. Both these Societies have been rendering useful service to the country by undertaking on behalf of Government work in connection with the distribution of manures, and other agricultural requisites, and rationing. It is indeed high time that Government gave to marketing societies consistent patronage in a fuller measure and linked up Co-operative Credit effectively with marketing. Separate statistics are not available for marketing societies and it is to be hoped that the Reserve Bank will publish them in its statements.

During 1948-49, the sale of goods to members amounted to Rs. 41 crores and the sale of members' products amounted to Rs. 43 crores.

Non-credit activities of Agricultural Societies, 1948-49.

(*In lakhs of rupees.*)

Administrative Area	Sale of goods to members	Purchase of members' products
Madras	4,30	4,10
Bombay	28,00	30,05
West Bengal	41	46
Bihar	59	3,34
United Provinces ..	29	20
East Punjab	25	28
Central Provinces and Berar	2,09	2,10
Mysore	60	20
Hyderabad	1,18	1,10
Travancore	2,64	4
Others	91	95
Total	41,26	42,82

Even agricultural credit societies and their central banks are doing non-credit work and are competing with marketing societies in a rather unfair way. This tendency is most marked in Bombay, where credit societies supplied goods worth Rs. 2½ crores and sold goods worth Rs. 3¼ crores to members.

CONSOLIDATION OF HOLDINGS

The law of primogeniture, by which the eldest son alone succeeds to the property of his ancestor and which is in force in some European countries does not obtain in India. Each heir is given a proportionate share of each item of the inherited property and not a share of the whole, equivalent to his portion. The result is that successive generations descending from a common ancestor inherit not only smaller and smaller shares of his land but inherit that land broken up into smaller and smaller plots.

The disadvantages of fragmentation are obvious. A part of land is wasted owing to fragmentation being so excessive as to prevent any agricultural operations, and another part is lost in boundaries. The economic loss due to this system can be easily imagined, and the only solution is consolidation of holdings. This most difficult, important and interesting experiment originated in the undivided Punjab in 1920. The procedure adopted in establishing a Co-operative Consolidation of Holdings Society is to call together all persons directly interested in land in a given village, persuade them to accept the bye-laws whereby a majority in a general meeting might approve a method of repartition, and then carry out actual adjustment of fields and holdings in such a manner that no single individual might have any grievance. As a result of patient work, some very striking results have been achieved and the movement for consolidation in the Punjabs has assumed the dimensions of an important agricultural reform. It is steadily gaining in popularity, and, as more staff is trained and the people become better educated to the advantages of the system, the figures for the area consolidated would mount up year by year. In the East Punjab consolidation operations were completed in 1,557 villages upto 31st July 1948.

In Central Provinces and Berar some success in consolidation has been achieved in the Chattisgarh area where scattered holdings are particularly common and it is not rare to see 10 acres broken into 40 plots. The State Government found it desirable to resort to legislation and passed the Central Provinces Consolidation of Holdings Act in 1928. Any two or more permanent holders in a village holding together not less than a certain minimum prescribed area of land, may apply for the consolidation of their holdings, but the outstanding feature of the Act is that it gives power to a proportion, not less than one-half of the permanent right-holders, holding not less than two-thirds of the occupied area in a village, to agree to the preparation of a scheme of consolidation, which scheme, when confirmed, becomes binding on all the permanent right-holders in the village and their successors in interest. The area consolidated up to 30th June, 1946 was 11¼ lakh acres.

In Bombay a Bill was introduced in the Legislative Council in 1928 to deal with certain features of the problem. When this Bill was introduced, it encountered a good deal of opposition, and so the Bill had to be ultimately dropped. In 1947 the Bombay Legislature passed a Bill for the prevention of further fragmentation of holdings and for consolidation.

There were 350 societies for the consolidation of holdings in the United Provinces through which more than 120,000 acres were consolidated.

RURAL RECONSTRUCTION

One of the main reasons why the achievements of the co-operative movement fall so short of the expectations of the promoters and workers is the extreme backwardness of the rural population, and so the ultimate success or otherwise of the co-operative movement is bound up with general rural development and progress. The co-operative movement itself is a great experiment in rural reconstruction aiming to protect the agriculturist from exploitation by the usurer, the middleman—*dalal* and the merchant. Rural reconstruction has, however, of late years claimed an increasing amount of attention.

The old undivided Punjab was responsible for a very desirable type of co-operative society to promote better living among the members. The societies do not collect any levy from their members, except a small entrance fee and they lay down a programme of work and make rules for carrying it out from year to year, violation of which is punishable with fine under the by-laws. Though these societies in the first instance have for their object the curtailment of ruinous expenditure on marriages and other social occasions, they have also helped in various other matters. Some of these societies have levelled and paved and swept the village lands, some have promoted sanitation, some have induced the villagers to improve ventilation in their houses, some have repaired and roofed the village drinking well, some have arranged that all manure should be pitted, some have discouraged expenditure on jewellery, and some have stopped waste on farms. Thus in a variety of ways these societies generally have been great factors in the improvement of conditions in the life of the village. There are now more than 1,345 such societies in the East Punjab in 1947-48.

The anti-malarial societies of Bengal which numbered 1,048 in 1945-46 did extremely useful work by clearing jungles, kerosination of tanks and distributing quinine. The State itself in recent years has been doing a great deal for rural reconstruction through adult education, provision of medical facilities in villages and promotion of rural housing schemes.

URBAN CREDIT SOCIETIES

While the chief objective of the co-operative movement was from the first to do service to the rural population, it must be remembered that the Act of 1904 permitted two classes of societies—rural and urban, recognising thus the suitability of the co-operative method for solving the problems of urban population also. At present there are in all 27,822 non-agricultural societies with a membership of 5,445,632 Of these, 7,029 are credit societies, the rest being societies for other purposes.

An important class of the urban population is that of the merchants and traders, and though the joint-stock banking system that has so far developed is quite well suited in many respects for them, from the point of view of the small trader, it is co-operative banking that is obviously wanted. The importance of People's Co-operative Banks promoted for the benefit of urban people without any distinction of caste or creed is, therefore, very great, for the financing of small merchants, artisans and craftsmen, and for the stimulation of trade and industries in and around district and taluka towns. The principal business of these banks is short-term credit and in this respect they resemble the ordinary commercial banks. In the absence of any industrial co-operative bank, it is also for the peoples' bank to finance small industrialists and help the development of cottage industries which still play a very considerable part in industrial economy. Another very important function which falls to peoples' banks is the financing of the marketing of the produce of the land from the field to the port or to the principal market centres, and thus assist in the development of the internal trade of the country. It is only, however, in Bombay and Madras that we meet with some good institutions functioning as peoples' banks. In Madras there are 1,161 non-agricultural credit societies but most of these are not real peoples' banks. East Punjab has 333 unlimited liability societies and 130 with limited liability. Even here we hardly find any development of real peoples' banks. In West Bengal the limited liability societies number 356 and though these societies seem to have won public confidence the more important of them are salary earners' credit societies. Some of the divisions of the State have several big concerns, however, working on sound lines. The question of starting peoples' banks in Bihar and Orissa has not yet been seriously taken in hand. In Bombay, institutions with a working capital of Rs. 20,000 and more are classed as urban banks. Since 1922 co-operators in this State have been very keen on having a full-fledged peoples' bank in every taluka town, for it has been realised that with the proper development of urban co-operative banking, there is no doubt that the various units will come into touch with one another and that of mutual settlement of terms and co-ordinated and harmonious work will greatly assist the development of inland trading agencies.

SAVINGS

In Bombay there were 118 urban banks in 1948 most of which were fairly successful. The total membership was 116,379 and the working capital was Rs. 10.15 crores. Urban banking has now been found so successful that de-officialisation and relaxation of departmental control will probably first be introduced with regard to them, supervision and guidance being made available from their own federations.

An important variant of the urban co-operative society is the Thrift Society. The system adopted is to collect regular savings every month for a continuous period of two to four years, invest the collected amount to the best advantage and pay back to the subscriber his amount at the end of the term with interest. In many societies, loans are advanced also but not exceeding a certain fixed proportion, usually ¾ of the deposits. East Punjab has more than 320 societies and the bulk of the members are school masters. There are over 98 thrift societies for women only having a membership of more than 1,500. Madras has more than 100 thrift societies and Bombay also has a few. Recently however Life Insurance Societies have been started in Bombay, West Bengal and Madras. The Bombay society started in 1930 largely through the efforts of Dewan Bahadur H. L. Kaji, has no share capital and works on a mutual basis. It has by now a business in force of 2.85 crores. The Bengal Society has had to seek amalgamation with a joint-stock insurance company, while the Madras Society—the South India Co-operative Insurance Society—started vigorously as a full-fledged life insurance society with share capital and comparatively low rates of premia, and has already written a large business of about Rs. 1 crore in 1947-48.

Madras has also a Co-operative Fire and General Society and a Co-operative Motor Vehicles Insurance Society. Recently a society called the All India Co-operative Fire and General Insurance Society has been registered in Bombay under the guidance of Dewan Bahadur H. L. Kaji.

Housing societies have assumed great importance due to the acute house shortage in big cities. Madras favours the individual house-ownership type, while Bombay favours the co-partnership type. There are 315 such societies in Bombay and 139 in Madras.

Industrial societies have been developing rapidly in recent years and during 1947-48, the sale of goods amounted to Rs. 54¼ crores and the purchase of goods to Rs. 42¾ crores. Madras predominated with Rs. 30 and 22 crores respectively, Bombay coming next with Rs. 7¾ and 7¼ crores respectively.

The Consumer's Co-operative Movement did not achieve any striking success except in isolated cases like the Triplicane Urban Co-operative Society in Madras. The World War II changed conditions radically and led to the vigorous promotion of consumers' co-operative societies in India. The following table shows how Madras maintains the lead, with Assam and Bombay following :—

Consumers' Co-operative Societies, 1947-48.

(In lakhs of rupees.)

Administrative Area.	No. of societies.	Member-ship.	Share capital.	Purchases.	Sales.
Madras	1,740	559,500	1.05	1,863	23,54
Bombay	612	182,876	n.a.	517	5,41
Assam *	1,009	106,754	26	500	5,00
West Bengal	285	39,000	4	61	52
Orissa	211	21,553	3	40	43
United Provinces	243	26,643	5	n.a.	51
Central Provinces and Berar	479	31,471	6	93	1,21
Mysore	155	30,891	9	80	82
Travancore	372	35,431	6	165	79

n.a. Not available.

* Figures for 1946-47.

Two features of the development of consumers co-operation in Madras deserves special mention. The first is the penetration of stores societies in rural areas, 892 of the 1,740 societies being rural with a membership of about 6 lakhs, a working capital of Rs. 2¼ crores and sales over Rs. 23½ crores. The other feature is the organisation of wholesale or central stores. These last are 22 in number with sales amounting to Rs. 16¼ crores. South India generally and Madras in particular have been very suitable areas for the consumers' movement. Whether the success achieved there is due to its being a land of cheapness and efficiency or to other causes, it is hard to discover.

REVIEW

The Co-operative Societies Act of 1904 had limitations which were soon recognised and at a conference of the Registrars, a Bill was drawn up which became the Co-operative Societies Act of 1912. This Act remedied the defects of its predecessor, authorized the registration of societies for purposes other than credit, substituted a scientific classification based on the nature of the liability for the arbitrary one into rural and urban and legalised the registration of Unions and Central Banks.

In 1914 the then Government of India reviewed the situation in a comprehensive resolution and recommended a change in the policy regarding the grant of loans to members, so that they might lend money for domestic purposes as well as for agricultural ones in order that the members might confine their dealings with the Co-operative Societies and be weaned from the *sowcars*. In 1914, the Maclagan Committee on co-operation was appointed and its report in 1915 led to the reorganisation and overhauling of the whole administration of co-operation. Punctual repayment of loans was insisted upon, and all those societies that failed to live up to the ideal of co-operation were sought to be eliminated. From this time onwards the share of co-operators in the movement assumed increasing importance and it came to be realized that for the success of the movement, deofficialising was necessary. The Government of India Act of 1919 made co-operation a State transferred subject and the State Governments were left free to adapt the 1912 Act to their own requirements.

The steady growth of the Central Financing Agencies relieved the Registrars partly of the need for attending to this very important matter in the development of co-operation ; but propaganda still remained the function of the Registrar and his staff, paid or honorary, and it was perceived that non-official institutions should be established to take over this function from official hands. Accordingly Co-operative Institutes were started in various States in some cases as unitary societies reaching down to the village through their branches in the divisions and the district, in other cases as a federation or union more or less complete of the primary societies. The part these non-official bodies began to play henceforth became increasingly important, some adding to the primary function of propaganda, others such as co-operative education, supervision over societies and even audit.

ENQUIRY COMMITTEES

The steady progress of the movement—sometimes even too rapid—for nearly 20 years, however, was found hardly to lessen the colossal burden of indebtedness of the ryot, for co-operative credit necessarily confined itself to short-term loans. The first Co-operative Land Mortgage Bank was started at Jhang in the Punjab in 1920. Soon after other States followed suit.

While the movement was developing at a rapid pace it was found that financially the situation was worsening. Defaults in repayment were becoming increasingly common and Co-operative Committees of Enquiry were instituted in various States. Central Provinces and Berar thought it necessary to have such a committee in 1922, while Bihar and Orissa followed with a similar committee in 1923. A few years after, the Oakden Committee made similar inquiries for United Provinces and the Townsend Committee for Madras. These Committees carefully analysed the position in their respective States and made recommendations for the consolidation and rectification of the co-operative credit organisation and the extension of the non-credit side of agricultural co-operation. The powers conferred upon the State Government by the Act of 1919 to modify the Act of 1912 have been exercised by almost all States, except the East Punjab and United Provinces. Bombay passed the Co-operative Societies Act of 1925 making the object of the movement still wider than that of its predecessor and its preamble refers to "better living, better business and better methods of production" as the aim of the movement. The chief features of the Bombay Act of 1925 are the adoption of a scientific system of classification of societies, the improvement of the procedure for liquidation of cancelled societies, the extension of summary powers of recovery to the awards of arbitrators and the provision of penalties against specified offences. The Madras Act came into force in July 1932. West Bengal, Bihar and Orissa have also similar Co-operative Acts of their own. The progress of the movement in forms other than credit has not been very remarkable and credit societies still predominate, especially the Agricultural Credit Societies.

In 1926, the Royal Commission on Agriculture was appointed and co-operation formed only a part—though an important one—of its extensive enquiry. Since then, in consequence of the appointment of the provincial committees under the Indian Central Banking Inquiry Committee the co-operative movement in the different States has been further surveyed. But the provincial committees, for obvious reasons, confined their inquiries to banking in relation to agriculture, small industries and trade. Thus only those aspects of the co-operative movement which have an intimate bearing on the credit needs of the population and the development of banking facilities have been examined.

A few years back, the Government of Bombay appointed a small committee to inquire into the co-operative movement and to suggest how effective action could be taken to improve, extend and strengthen the movement. One welcome feature of the suggestions in the report is the adoption of the multi-purpose society as the primary unit in villages advocated strongly by the Agricultural Credit Department of the Reserve Bank.

The growing difficulties of the co-operative movement at a time of unprecedented depression led the Government of India to hold a Co-operative Conference at New Delhi in 1934. In 1936 and 1939, other Conferences of Registrars met at Delhi and discussed the situation further.

As a result, consolidation, rectification and rehabilitation of credit societies were accepted as the policy, whereas expansion and diversification were severely restrained. Official control was strengthened and the movement which was being passed on to the co-operators themselves in the twenties became more officialised than ever before.

It may also be mentioned that the former Princely States were not slow in introducing the co-operative movement in their territory, and the movement in some of the more important of the States, such as Hyderabad, Mysore, Baroda, Gwalior, Indore, Kashmir and Travancore made considerable progress, more or less on the same lines as those followed in the neighbouring Governors' States.

An important landmark in the history of the co-operative movement is the report of the Co-operative Planning Committee issued towards the end of 1946. The Report which is very comprehensive lays down the lines and principles of co-operative development for the next few decades. But the Report gives no indication as to the relative importance of different types of co-operative effort. So it is up to the State Governments now to lay down the priorities and start working quickly towards the goal. Already there is great expansion in the co-operative credit structure and experiments are being undertaken in co-operative farming. Cottage industries are being developed through co-operative industrial associations. The future of co-operation lies however in development and expansion of co-operative marketing and the organisation of subsidiary occupations for agriculturists and the vigorous growth of consumers' co-operation in urban areas with strong co-operative wholesales at the chief ports like Bombay, Madras and Calcutta.

Quite recently the U.N.O. and the I.L.O. have begun to evince greater interest in the development of the co-operative movement in Asian countries and an Asian Conference was held at Lucknow in the last week of October 1949, with the Hon'ble Mr. V. L. Mehta as Chairman and Dewan Bahadur H. L. Kaji as leader of the Indian Delegation. A similar Conference held in January 1950 at Newara Eliyah (Ceylon) by the I.L.O. of Geneva also had an important section on co-operation. Such Conferences clearly reveal the strides that India has taken in the development of the movement and establish contacts with other Asian Co-operators, much to the benefit of all concerned. The International Co-operative Alliances of London too is planning to take active steps for the promotion of co-operation in the Asian countries and may hold a Conference in India in 1951.

TABLE NO. 1.

Number of Societies by Provinces, States and States' Unions for 1948-49.

Provinces, States and States' Unions.	Estimated Population (Millions)	Central	Supervising and Guaranteeing Unions	Agricultural	Non-Agricultural	Total Number of Societies	Number of Societies per 100,000 Inhabitants
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Madras	53·4	32	268	15,510	4,986	20,796	38·9
Bombay	31·0	36	125	9,238	3,894	13,293	42·9
West Bengal	21·4	41	..	12,112	2,157	14,310	66·9
Bihar	37·7	46	..	10,666	661	11,373	30·2
Orissa	13·9	19	..	3,536	775	4,330	31·2
United Provinces	58·5	70	1	29,527	3,798	33,396	57·1
East Punjab	14·1	72	..	10,091	2,815	12,978	92·0
Central Provinces and Berar	20·6	41	6	7,419	1,146	8,612	41·8
Assam	7·7	16	..	786	2,099	2,901	37·7
Coorg	0·2	1	13	268	56	338	169·0
Ajmer	0·6	7	9	605	318	939	156·5
Delhi	1·3	1	..	344	474	819	63·0
Total (Provinces)	260·4	382	422	100,102	23,179	120,085	47·7
Mysore	7·9	4	..	4,237	862	5,103	64·6
Hyderabad	17·3	47	1	18,506	776	19,330	111·7
Bhopal	0·8	14	2	252	..	268	33·5
Madhya Bharat	7·6	21	..	5,148	621	5,790	76·2
Kashmir	4·3	9	..	2,140	779	2,928	68·1
Travancore	6·5	1	29	1,282	655	1,967	30·3
Cochin	1·5	1	..	197	331	529	35·3
Sirmur	0·2	..	..	610	4	614	307·0
Patiala and East Punjab States' Union	3·8	13	..	886	184	1,083	28·5
Saurashtra	3·6	..	..	246	69	315	8·8
Rajasthan	4·5	4	..	1,477	382	1,863	41·4
Total (States & States' Unions)	58·0	114	32	34,981	4,663	39,790	68·6
Grand Total	318·4	496	454	135,083	27,842	163,875	51·5

TABLE NO. 2.

Number of Members by Provinces, States and States' Unions for 1948-49.

Provinces, States and States' Unions.	Estimated Population (Millions)	Central	Supervising and Guaranteeing Unions	Agricultural	Non-Agricultural	Total Number of Members of Primary Societies	Number of Members of Primary Societies per 1,000 Inhabitants
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Madras	53·4	20,668	10,236	1,524,189	1,336,438	2,860,627	53·6
Bombay	31·0	39,508	5,408	801,270	1,014,663	1,815,933	58·6
West Bengal	21·4	11,114	..	333,219	413,084	746,303	34·9
Bihar	37·7	7,737	..	344,616	148,357	492,973	13·1
Orissa	13·9	5,041	..	155,895	77,701	233,596	16·8
United Provinces	58·5	24,560	103	1,182,886	1,497,011	2,679,897	45·8
East Punjab	14·1	13,007	..	541,452	129,713	671,165	47·6
Central Provinces and Berar	20·6	41,527	11,301	210,985	127,351	338,336	16·4
Assam	7·7	1,315	..	20,070	236,908	256,978	33·4
Coorg	0·2	951	314	28,243	16,419	44,662	223·3
Ajmer-Merwara	0·6	1,723	163	14,693	15,731	30,424	50·7
Delhi	1·3	595	..	15,491	27,180	42,671	32·8
Total (Provinces)	260·4	167,746	27,525	5,173,009	5,040,556	10 213,565	39·2
Mysore	7·9	1,740	..	242,031	146,844	388,875	49·2
Hyderabad	17·3	7,201	10,365	1,296,765	115,605	1,412,370	81·6
Bhopal	0·8	751	30	7,871	..	7,871	9·8
Madhya Bharat	7·6	10,054	..	107,873	39,428	147,301	19·4
Kashmir	4·3	2,665	..	74,588	27,897	102,485	23·8
Travancore	6·5	3,098	1,830	143,681	106,355	250,036	38·5
Cochin	1·5	237	..	21,291	60,137	81,428	54·3
Sirmur	0·2	..	..	12,563	209	12,772	63·9
Patiala and East Punjab States' Union	3·8	2,573	..	23,548	7,470	31,018	8·2
Saurashtra	3·6	..	..	10,565	6,566	17,131	4·8
Rajasthan	4·5	2,158	..	29,518	12,703	42,221	9·4
Total (States & States' Unions)	58·0	30,477	12,225	1,970,294	523,214	2,493,508	43·0
Grand Total	318·4	198,223	39,750	7,143,303	5,563,770	12,707,073	39·9

TABLE NO. 3.

Working Capital by Provinces, States and States' Unions for 1948-49. (*In lakhs of rupees*)

Provinces, States and States' Unions.	Estimated Population (Millions)	Share Capital Paid-up	Loans and Deposits held at the end of the Year from					Borrowings of Land Mortgage Banks and Societies	Reserve Fund	Other Fund	Total	Number of Annas per head of Population.
			Members	Societies	Provincial and Central Banks	Government	Non-Members and other sources					
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Madras	53·4	9,22	2,92	5,22	19,37	4,39	13,52	7,73	4,38	3,56	70,30	210·6
Bombay	31·0	9,21	11,50	4,72	8,83	5,79	18,62	85	3,37	2,74	65,64	338·8
West Bengal	21·4	2,48	3,68	89	1,27	54	6,19	6	1,42	1,22	17,75	132·7
Bihar	37·7	59	1,01	22	35	63	74	..	38	8	3,99	16·9
Orissa	13·9	45	13	23	91	39	64	8	25	9	3,17	36·5
United Provinces	58·5	2,83	99	1,97	3,25	65	3,92	2	1,24	1,08	15,96	43·6
East Punjab	14·1	1,51	92	1,73	90	20	3,72	..	1,06	60	10,64	120·7
Central Provinces & Berar ..	20·6	88	25	23	2,31	7	2,92	21	57	40	7,85	61·0
Assam	7·7	43	30	3	3	..	15	..	10	4	1,08	22·5
Coorg	0·2	9	4	4	5	1	14	..	8	3	48	381·2
Ajmer Merwara	0·6	10	13	7	12	..	11	1	10	9	73	194·1
Delhi	1·3	18	22	8	3	12	18	..	4	4	89	109·2
Total (Provinces) ..	260·4	27,97	22,09	15,43	37,42	12,79	50,85	8,96	12,99	9,97	1,98,48	122·0
Mysore	7·9	1,08	1,00	1	37	2	43	95	50	11	4,47	90·6
Hyderabad	17·3	2,08	88	39	71	6	1,42	..	58	1,21	7,33	67·8
Bhopal	0·8	1	..	..	2	2	..	..	4	2	12	23·3
Madhya Bharat	7·6	36	31	24	79	34	71	..	57	14	3,45	72·7
Kashmir	4·3	20	2	6	25	12	13	..	11	13	1,03	38·3
Travancore	6·5	43	18	12	14	1	22	..	15	12	1,37	33·7
Cochin	1·5	14	11	2	5	4	28	16	8	7	94	100·1
Sirmur	0·2	2	..	2	..	..	..	..	1	..	4	34·8
Patiala & East Punjab States' Union	3·8	19	4	1	15	..	38	..	7	12	95	40·2
Saurashtra	3·6	6	10	..	..	1	3	..	3	..	23	10·5
Rajasthan	4·5	16	4	3	12	7	49	..	9	8	1,08	38·3
Total (States & States' Unions)	58·0	4,73	2,68	90	2,60	69	4,09	111	2,22	2,00	21,01	58·0
Grand Total	318·4	32,70	24,77	16,33	40,02	13,48	59,94	10,07	15,22	11,97	2,19,49	110·3

TABLE NO. 4.

Operations of Co-operative Societies, 1948-49. (*In thousands of rupees*)

	Provincial Co-operative Banks	Central Banks	Land Mortgage Banks and Societies		Agricultural Societies		Non-Agricultural Societies	
			Central	Primary	Credit	Non-Credit	Credit	Non-Credit
Number	12	484	5	263	1,12,059	22,756	7,029	20,793
Share Capital	1,02,02	3,14,95	23,79	41,39	9,72,04		18,16,24	
Loans and Deposits held from :—								
Members	15,16,31	22,05,04	5,30,99*	15,46§	3,39,79		21,37,42	
Non-Members					2,32,82		15,39,84	
Societies	3,68,98	9,27,88	..	4,44,60	1,72,82		1,62,87	
Provincial or Central Banks	3,58,30	8,54,94			14,98,14		12,90,88	
Government	5,75,51	97,36	15,45†	5†	3,60,49		3,41,17	
Reserve Fund	88,14	2,03,71	20,37	9,78	6,45,84		5,53,84	
Other Funds	1,02,24	2,07,87	6,75	3,12	3,18,70		5,58,11	
Total (Working Capital) ..	31,11,50	48,11,76	5,97,35	5,14,40	45,40,74		83,73,36	
Loans made during the year to :—								
Individuals	7,34,41	8,18,14	6,39	1,07,76	20,58,04		38,33,72	
Banks and Societies	33,52,01	84,50,34	97,01	6,84	4,12,91		10,55,17	
Loans due by :—	..	..	..	..	..		..	
Individuals	1,56,75	2,39,61	24,40	4,73,50	23,65,20		33,21,57	
Of which Overdue	..	..	2,52	4,07	4,60,36		3,15,67	
Banks and Societies	15,19,35	26,62,30	4,24,85	2,69	2,60,97		2,37,72	
Profits ..	23,22	46,36	3,05	1,68	1,41,53		2,49,19	

* Including Rs. 5,11,45,354 as Debentures.
§ Including Rs. 8,99,877 as Debentures.
† Represents debentures taken up by Government.

LABOUR

THE year 1950 was marked by an event of great international moment, namely, the outbreak of hostilities in Korea. This affected many spheres of Indian economic life, including labour. The inflationary spiral continued unabated despite every effort to check it. New all-time peaks were reached both by the wholesale and cost of living index numbers. The trade and currency deadlock between India and Pakistan continued only to be relieved to a slight extent by the Indo-Pakistan trade agreement of April 1950. Just before then the communal disturbances in the eastern part of the country caused much misery, suffering and dislocation and for the time being many units of industry remained in a state of suspended animation. Natural calamities such as floods and earthquakes in some parts of the country greatly affected the normal economic life and resulted in severe hardship.

The appointment of the Planning Commission, early in the year, gave rise to new hopes and fresh expectations since among its terms of reference are matters vitally connected with labour such as wage policy, industrial relations, industrial housing, etc.

During the year two labour bills, namely, the Labour Relations Bill and the Trade Unions Bill were introduced in Parliament. These created a regular furore in many circles and were the subjects of heated public controversy. In order to introduce an element of uniformity in the principles underlying the awards of Industrial Tribunals, the Central Government enacted the Industrial Disputes (Appellate Tribunal) Act, 1950 and constituted such a Tribunal at Bombay with a Bench at Calcutta. Government also introduced a new Mines Bill with a view to bringing labour conditions in mines on a par with those in factories.

Legislative measures were taken to make applicable to the former Princely States the labour laws obtaining in the rest of the country and thus the long-standing grievance of many employers regarding the advantages accruing to industries located in certain regions will soon disappear.

In regard to labour relations, the outstanding event during the year was the general strike in the Bombay cotton mill industry. The strike failed but at a considerable cost to the community in production and wages to the workers. It lasted for about two months and resulted in a time-loss to the industry of about 94 lakhs of man-days. Owing largely to the occurrence of this strike the year 1950 was worse from the point of view of industrial relations than its predecessor.

Judged from the number of registered trade unions and their membership in 1948-49, the year for which the latest statistics are available, there has been a steady improvement. Thus, there were over 3,000 registered unions in this year claiming a membership of about 20 lakhs.

Since in the major industries, Industrial Tribunals, Courts, etc., had already fixed wages and dearness allowances, there were no major changes during the year in the wage structure. But an outstanding event during the year was the implementation of the Minimum Wages Act which applies primarily to what are known as 'sweated' industries. Many of the States have fixed minimum wages in such industries and although the time limit for the application of the Act has now been extended, the general tendency has been to implement the Act. Two of the States, namely, Punjab and Delhi have also fixed minimum wages in Agriculture.

The award of the Industrial Tribunal appointed to enquire into the conditions of work and wages of bank employees was enforced during the year. While this has led to considerable improvement in the pay scales, etc. of these workers, there are loud complaints that the award will adversely affect banking in the country. At the beginning of 1951 the award was set aside by the Supreme Court on the technical ground that the Tribunal was not properly constituted.

Despite difficulties at home and abroad, the employment situation in the country showed a slight improvement. Several factories which had closed partially or wholly during the preceding year re-opened and to that extent unemployment among industrial workers diminished. In the two major industries, however, namely cotton and jute, the difficulties regarding an adequate supply of raw materials continued to be acute. Retrenchment in Government services continued and so did the influx of displaced persons from Eastern Pakistan. The result was that the number of applicants on the registers of employment exchanges was continually on the increase and the employment situation in the country was a little worse than last year.

LABOUR LEGISLATION

Among the more important Acts that govern labour conditions and relations in India are the following: 1. Indian Factories Act, 1948; 2. Indian Mines Acts; 3. Payment of Wages Acts; 4. Minimum Wages Act; 5. Workmen's Compensation Act; 6. Maternity Benefit Acts (States); 7. Indian Trades Union Act; 8. Industrial Disputes Act; Industrial Disputes (Appellate Tribunal) Act; 9. Tea Districts Emigrant Labour Act; 10. Shop Assistants Acts (States); 11. Employees' State Insurance Act; and 12. Industrial Statistics Act.

We can now proceed to a general survey of labour.

India has always been a predominantly agricultural country. It is necessary, therefore, for both the smaller cultivators and the agricultural labourers to migrate frequently to the towns and cities in search of additional work. But, the migration is generally of a temporary character, and the agriculturist's contact with his land is seldom, if ever, permanently broken.

The Central co-ordinating authority in India for questions connected with labour legislation is the Ministry of Labour of the Government of India with the Labour Minister in charge. The administration of matters connected with the English and Indian Merchant Shipping Acts, the Mercantile Marine Department and Indian Seamen is with the Ministry of Commerce. In respect of all the Railways, the Labour Minister is responsible for the administration of the Payment of Wages Act, 1936, Trade Disputes, Hours of Work for employees not covered by the Factories Act and regulation of employment of children. He is also responsible for Regulation of Labour and Safety in respect of mines and oilfields; trade disputes in industries, businesses or undertakings carried on by the Central Government; and Inter-State Migration.

Under the constitution of the Republic of India the legislative relation between the Union and the States have been clearly defined and matters in respect of which laws are to be made have been distributed in three lists, *viz.*, the Union List, Concurrent List and State List.

The following are the principal matters of labour interest enumerated in these lists:

(*i*) *Union List* (*Union Parliament*):

Participation in international conferences, associations and other bodies and implementing of decisions made thereat; Port quarantine, including hospitals connected therewith; seamen's and marine hospitals; Regulation of labour and safety in mines and oilfields; Industrial disputes concerning Union employees; Union agencies and institutions for:

(*a*) Professional, vocational or technical training; or (*b*) The promotion of special studies or research; Enquiries, surveys and statistics for the purpose of any of the matters in this list.

(*ii*) *Concurrent List* (*Union Parl. and State Legislature*):

Economic and social planning; Commercial and industrial monopolies, combines and trusts; Trade Unions; industrial and labour disputes; Social security and social insurance; employment and unemployment; Welfare of labour including conditions of work, provident funds, employers' liability, workmen's compensation, invalidity and old age pensions and maternity benefits; Vocational and technical training of labour; Factories; Inquiries and statistics for the purposes of any of the matters specified in the Union List and State List.

(*iii*) *State List* (*State Legislature*):

Relief of the disabled and unemployable.

FIRST FACTORY ACT

Up to almost the end of the nineteenth century there was no State control over conditions of employment in any industry in the country. Hours of labour were inordinately long, rates of wages unduly low and other conditions of work not too satisfactory. There was no regulation of the age at which children could be employed; there were no periodical or weekly holidays; and there was no legislation to safeguard factory workers from injury through accident.

1881 Factory Act.—With the growth of factory organisation and the rapid development of her industries, the minds of certain men, notably Sorabjee Shapurjee Bengali, however, began to be awakened to the existence of evils which by the standards of today would be considered intolerable, and unceasing efforts at securing some improvement in conditions of work in factories resulted, notwithstanding strenuous and universal opposition at the time from all employers, in the passing of the first Indian Factories Act of 1881. Owing to an almost complete lack of adequate inspection however the 1881 Act remained a dead letter in most States.

A Factories' Commission was appointed in 1890 and on the basis of its recommendations, a new Factories' Act was passed in 1891. The main features of this Act were: (1) a compulsory rest interval of half an hour; (2) a weekly holiday; (3) non-employment of a child under nine and a 7-hour day for children between nine and fourteen; (4) a 11-hour day for women with a 1½-hour interval if they were required to work for the permissible maximum hours; and (5) restriction in the employment of women during 8 p.m. and 5 a.m.

The last decade of the nineteenth century saw the advent of two new factors in the field of industrial labour in India which were destined, for the time being at any rate, to worsen conditions in the various factories. The first was the introduction of electricity for purposes of factory lighting and the second was plague. The immediate effect of these two was a considerable increase in working hours.

Reduction in Hours.—Conditions of work in factories in the country during the period were inquired into by the Freer Smith Committee

which was appointed in 1906 and by the Factory Labour Commission, a body appointed by the British Government in 1907. The Commission were unanimously of opinion that some limitation in hours of work was essential but the majority were opposed to any direct limitation. As far as women's hours were concerned, they proposed that the statutory maximum should be increased from 11 to 12. A new Factories' Bill was introduced in the Governor-General's Legislative Council and passed into law in 1911.

The 1911 Act sought to make a beginning in the restriction of the hours of work of adult males by prescribing that men's hours in textile factories should not exceed twelve per day. The provisions of the 1891 Act in connection with women's hours were maintained but with the difference that the rest interval of an hour and a half prescribed for women who were made to work for the full permissible hours was reduced. Children's hours in textile factories were reduced to six per day and more stringent measures were provided for inspection and certification. A compulsory rest interval of half an hour in the middle of the day was provided for all operatives except for those employed in continuous process factories. The 1911 Act was brought into force with effect from the 1st of July 1912.

The Act of 1922.—In March 1920, the Mill-owners' Association of Bombay presented a memorial to the Viceroy asking for a statutory reduction of hours of work in all textile factories in India from twelve to ten. The rapid sequence of events in favour of a 10-hour day broke the back of all opposition to reduced hours of work in the factories and an easy passage for the necessary legislation was assured.

The law relating to factories was amended and consolidated by the Act of 1922. The main provisions of factory legislation as it then stood were as follows : (1) the qualification for registration was the employment of 20 persons—factories employing not less than ten workers could be notified ; (2) non-employment of a child under 12, a 6-hour day for children between twelve and fifteen, a half-hour rest interval after four hours work and prohibition of the employment of a child in two factories on the same day ; (3) restriction in the hours of work of adults to eleven per day and sixty per week ; (4) prohibition of the employment of women between 7 p.m. and 5-30 a.m. except in the fish curing and canning industry ; (5) compulsory rest intervals and a weekly holiday ; and (6) measures for controlling excessive artificial humidification and for the health and safety of operatives.

Exemptions on well defined principles were to be permitted. The Amending Acts of 1923, 1926 and 1931 effected minor improvements but the general principles remained unaltered.

Factory law in India was completely overhauled in 1934 as the result of the acceptance by Government of most of the recommendations made for its improvement by the Royal Commission on Labour in India. A new consolidating and amending Act was passed by the Central Legislature in 1934 and "The Factories Act, 1934" was brought into operation with effect from 1st January 1935. This Act was amended in 1936, 1940, 1941, 1944, 1945, 1946 and 1947. The amendment Act of 1946 reduced the daily hours of work from 9 to 8 and the weekly hours from 54 to 48 in the case of perennial factories and from 10 to 9 and from 60 to 54 in the case of seasonal factories.

FACTORIES ACT, 1948

With a view to consolidating and amending the law regulating labour in factories the Factories Act, 1948, was passed and its provisions came into operation with effect from 1st April 1949. The 1934 Act was very general in character and left too much to the rule-making powers of the State Governments. This has been remedied by laying down in the law itself the minimum requirements regarding health, safety and general welfare of workers. The following are the main provisions of the Act.

Scope. The Act covers all industrial establishments employing 10 or more workers and using power and establishments employing 20 or more workers and not using power. The State Governments have been empowered to apply the provisions of the Act to any premises, irrespective of the number of persons employed, where a manufacturing process is carried on with or without the aid of power, except where the work is done by the worker solely with the aid of his family. The distinction between seasonal and perennial factories no longer exists.

Licensing and Registration. The State Governments may make rules requiring the registration and licensing of factories. The Act lays down that the occupier of a factory shall, at least 15 da s before he begins to occupy or use any premises as a factory, send to the Chief Inspector of Factories a written notice containing details regarding the factory such as the name of the factory, name and address of occupier, nature of work, details of power used, etc.

Health. The Act prescribes that every factory should be kept clean and free from effluvia arising from drains, privies, etc., and lays down stipulations regarding sweeping, cleaning disinfecting, white washing, etc. Effective and suitable provision shall be made in every factory for securing and maintaining in every workroom adequate ventilation and such temperature as will secure to the workers therein reasonable conditions of comfort. No room in any factory shall be overcrowded to an extent injurious to the health of the workers and in existing factories 350 cubic feet of space should be provided for every workman. In new factories to be built the space for each workman shall be 500 cubic feet. Provisions relating to lighting, drinking water, latrines and urinals, etc., have also been laid down.

Safety. Elaborate provision regarding safety such as fencing of machinery, casing of new machinery and regulations regarding hoists and lifts, cranes, pressure plant, etc., have been laid down. Women and children are prohibited from employment on certain types of machinery. Precautionary measures against fire, dangerous fumes, explosive or inflammable dust, gas, etc., have been stipulated.

Welfare. Washing facilities for the workers, appliances for first-aid, rest shelters, creches, etc., are prescribed under the Act. In every factory where 500 or more workers are employed the occupier shall employ Welfare Officers. The State Governments may make rules requiring the maintenance of canteens in factories where more than 250 workers are ordinarily employed.

Hours of Work. Weekly hours of work have been fixed at 48 and daily hours at 9. The maximum spreadover allowed is 10½ hours. No worker shall work for more than 5 hours before he has had an interval for rest of at least half an hour. Payment for overtime has been prescribed at double ordinary rate of wages. No woman shall be employed in any factory except between the hours of 6 a.m. and 7 p.m. In special cases, however, the State Governments may vary these limits. A weekly day of rest has also been prescribed.

Employment of young persons. No child who has not completed his fourteenth year shall be required or allowed to work in any factory. A child who has completed his fourteenth year or an adolescent (a person who has not completed his eighteenth year) shall not be allowed to work in a factory unless a certificate of fitness by a certifying surgeon is in the custody of the manager of the factory and he carries while at work a token giving reference to such certificate. No 'child' shall be employed or permitted to work in any factory for more than 4½ hours in a day or between the hours of 7 p.m. and 6 a.m.

In 1938 the Government of India passed an Act in the Central Legislature for the prevention of the employment of children who have not completed their fifteenth year in any occupation connected with the transport of passengers, goods or mails by railway or in any occupation involving the handling of goods within the limits of any port to which for the time being any of the provisions of the Indian Ports Act, 1908, are applicable.

By an Amending Act passed in 1939 the employment of any child who has not completed his twelfth year is prohibited in any workshop connected with *bidi* making ; carpet weaving ; cement manufacture including bagging of cement ; cloth printing, dyeing and weaving ; manufacture of matches, explosives and fireworks ; mica-cutting and splitting ; shellac manufacture ; tanning and wool cleaning.

The prohibition, however, does not extend to any workshop wherein any process is carried on by the occupier with the aid of his family only and without employing hired labour or to any school established by or receiving assistance or recognition from a State Government.

State Governments are empowered by the Amending Act to add any description of process to the industries already scheduled in which the employment of children under twelve years of age should be prohibited.

In keeping with the provisions of the Factories Act 1948, which raises the age limit of children for employment in a factory from 12 to 14 years, the Act has been amended to prohibit the employment of children under 14 in all manufacturing processes enumerated in the schedule to the Act.

Leave. Every adult worker who has completed a period of 12 months' continuous service in a factory shall be allowed during the subsequent period of 12 months' leave with wages including dearness allowance for a period calculated at the rate of one day for every 20 days of work performed by him during the previous 12 months, subject to a minimum of 10 days. In the case of children the leave should be at the rate of one day for every 15 days of work subject to a minimum of 14 days.

Notifiable Diseases. Where any worker in a factory contracts any disease specified in the schedule appended to the Act, the manager of the factory shall send notice thereof to such authorities, and in such form and within such time, as may be prescribed. Further, if any medical practitioner attends on a person who is, or has been employed in a factory and who is, or is believed to be, suffering from any disease specified in the schedule the medical practitioner shall send a report in writing to the Chief Inspector.

Administration of the Act. The administration of the Act is left to the State Governments. Steps have been taken by most of the State Governments to strengthen the Factory Inspectorates. The Central Government have set up an advisory organisation, namely the Office of the Chief Adviser Factories.

FACTORY STATISTICS

Under the provisions of the Factories Act, 1948, registered factories submit annual and half yearly returns on employment to the Chief Inspectors of Factories in the various States. All-India figures are compiled by the Labour Bureau and are published in the Indian Labour Gazette. The figures for 1949 are somewhat wider in coverage than those for the previous years, especially on account of the fact that some

of the former princely States have merged in the neighbouring States. As a result of such changes, the number of factories on registers increased during 1949 to 19,802, *i.e.*, by about 24 per cent. over the 1948 figure of 15,906.

The following table sets out the statistics of the average daily numbers of persons employed in all factories in India for the years 1939, 1947, 1948, and 1949 classified according to main industry groups.

Classes of Factories	Average Daily Number of Persons employed in the year			
	1939	1947*	1948	1949
Textiles	819,408	1,008,381	1,032,945	1,046,752
Engineering	221,819	356,659	380,941	369,658
Minerals and Metals	55,123	89,353	101,319	108,973
Food, Drink and Tobacco	249,731	302,980	319,363	348,378
Chemicals, Dyes, etc.	57,934	101,467	112,700	119,864
Paper and Printing	56,932	77,963	80,083	86,038
Wood, Stone and Glass	53,084	94,325	98,279	105,407
Skins and Hides	12,938	29,282	27,231	28,755
Gins and Presses	164,303	83,100	79,401	74,268
Miscellaneous	59,855	131,079	127,930	146,598
TOTAL	1,751,137	2,274,689	2,360,201	2,434,691

* Figures for the year 1947 relate to the States of the Union of India while the figures for the year 1939 relate to the pre-partition India.

The age sex distribution of workers in factories for 1949 shows that of the total number of workers, 2,126,894 were men, 270,924 were women, 27,859 were adolescents and 9,014 were children.

THE INDIAN MINES ACT

The conditions of employment of labour in Indian Mines are governed by the Indian Mines Act, 1923, as amended by the Amending Acts of 1928 and 1935. The Act of 1923 which came into force from the 1st July 1924 replaced the earlier enactment of 1901.

The Amending Act of 1928 made some minor changes concerning daily limits of the hours of work and regulation of shifts. As a result of the recommendations of the Royal Commission on Labour and the adoption of the Draft International Labour Convention on Hours of Work in Coal Mines the Act was further amended in 1935. Further minor changes were made by the Amending Acts of 1936, 1937 and 1946 and in the Ordinance of 1945.

The 1923 Act for the first time prescribed the maximum limits of 54 hours per week for underground and 60 hours per week for above-ground workers. No limits were prescribed for daily hours. A daily limit of 12 hours was imposed for the first time by the Amending Act of 1928 which was brought into effect from 1st April 1930. As a result of the recommendations made in the matter by the Royal Commission on Labour in India and the adoption of the Draft Convention on Hours of Work in Coal Mines by the Fifteenth Session of the International Labour Conference in 1931, the Government of India passed the Indian Mines (Amendment) Act, 1935, which was brought into effect from 1st October 1935.

The main provisions of the law regarding hours and conditions of work in Indian Mines as it now stands, are as follows :—

(*a*) No person is to be employed in a mine for more than six days in any one week.

(*b*) No person employed above-ground in a mine is to be permitted to work for more than 54 hours in any one week or for more than ten hours in any one day ; and the periods of work of any such person are to be so arranged that along with any intervals of rest they shall not on any one day spread over more than twelve hours.

(*c*) The periods of work of a person employed below-ground in a mine are to be reckoned from the time he leaves the surface to the time he returns to the surface and are not in any one day to spread over more than nine hours. No person is to be allowed to remain below-ground except during his periods of work and where work below-ground is carried on by a system of relays, the periods of work of all persons employed in the same relay are to be the same and are to be reckoned from the time the first person of the relay leaves the surface to the time the last person of the relay returns to the surface.

(*d*) The employment in any mine of children under fifteen years of age is prohibited and those below the age of 17 are not permitted to work in mines unless certified medically fit.

(*e*) The Amending Act of 1946 makes it compulsory for the mines to maintain closed shower baths, separately for men and women, at or near the pithead. The Mines (Amendment) Ordinance, 1945, provided for the maintenance of creches in mines. The Ordinance was repealed in 1947 but the provisions of the Ordinance were incorporated in the Act.

(*f*) Accidents which cause bodily injury resulting in the enforced absence from work for more than seven days are to be recorded in the prescribed manner.

The Government of India promulgated regulations under Section 29(*j*) of the Indian Mines Act, 1923, on the 7th March 1929 prohibiting the employment of any woman underground in the coal-mines in West Bengal, Bihar and Orissa and the Madhya Pradesh and the salt mines in the Punjab with effect from the 1st July 1939 and in all other mines with effect from the 1st July 1929. In order to prevent undue hardship a principle of gradualness in the number of women to be reduced every year was laid down. Women are not prohibited from accepting employment in open workings and on the surface of mines.

In view, however, of an acute shortage of labour in coal-mining areas this policy was temporarily reversed. By two notifications dated the 24th November and the 4th December, 1943 respectively, the Government of India exempted, until further orders, all coal-mines in the States of West Bengal, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and Orissa from the provisions of clause (*j*) of Section 29 of the Indian Mines Act, 1923 to the extent to which regulations made thereunder prohibit the entry of women into under-ground working, for the purpose of employment subject to the following two conditions: (1) no woman was to be employed under-ground in galleries which were less than six feet in height ; and (2) every woman employed under-ground was to be paid wages at the same rate as a man employed under-ground on similar work. Milk was to be supplied to women working under-ground. There was considerable agitation both in India and abroad against the lifting of the ban on the employment of women under-ground. So the Government of India re-imposed the ban with effect from 1st February 1946, and there is now no employment of women under-ground in coal-mines.

With a view to consolidating and amending the law regulating mines the draft of a Bill was prepared by the Government for discussion at the first meeting of the Industrial Committee for coal-mines. The Bill with some modifications was introduced in the Legislature on 8th December 1949. Some of the salient features of the Bill are : (*a*) it reduces the working hours of all adult workers, both surface and under-ground, to 48 per week ; (*b*) it fixes the rate of overtime at 1½ times the ordinary rate for surface workers and twice the ordinary rate for under-ground workers ; (*c*) it raises the age limit of persons employed underground from 17 to 18 and limits the hours of work of persons between 15 and 18 years of age to 4½ per day ; (*d*) it provides for compensatory holidays and holidays with pay and (*e*) it makes provision for the health and safety of the workers on the lines of the Factories Act, 1948. The Bill was referred to a Select Committee whose report is at present under consideration of Parliament.

MINING STATISTICS

The collection of statistics in respect of labour employed in mines dates from 1924. These statistics used to be published in the Annual Reports of the Chief Inspector of Mines in India. Commencing from the year 1940, the Government of India have been publishing abridged reports which contain no figures for numbers employed. Statistics for the 16 years from 1923 to 1939 were given in a table at page 480 of the 1942-43 edition of this publication. The Government of India have, however, published figures showing the average daily number of persons employed in all mines in the various States in India in the issues of the *Indian Labour Gazette*. We set out the available figures in the following table :—

EMPLOYMENT IN MINES CLASSIFIED BY STATES
(Figures for the Indian Union)

State	1939	1947	1948	1949
Bihar	170,384	254,774	238,727	232,673
West Bengal	60,965	89,682	89,141	90,231
Madhya Pradesh	41,666	39,811	42,259	53,277
Madras	14,549	12,504	15,612	17,502
Others	11,086	10,492	10,126	27,476
Total	298,650	407,263	395,865	421,159

THE PAYMENT OF WAGES ACT

The Payment of Wages Act was passed by the Central Legislature early in 1936 and has since been twice amended. A detailed note on the history of this piece of legislation will be found at pages 503 and 504 of the 1938-39 Edition of this publication. The more important provisions of this Act which were brought into operation with effect from the 28th March 1937 are as follows :—

(*a*) *Scope of Application.*—The Act in the first instance applies to factories and railways but State Governments are empowered to extend it to tramway or motor omnibus services; docks, wharves or jetties ; inland steamer vessels; mines, quarries or oil-fields ; plantations ; and any other class of workshops or establishments in which articles are produced, adapted or manufactured with a view to their use, transport or sales. It applies only to wages and salaries which average below Rs. 200 per month.

(*b*) *Wages.*—'Wages' for purposes of the Act means all remuneration, capable of being expressed in terms of money, which would, if the terms of the contract of employment, express or implied, were fulfilled, be payable, whether conditionally upon the regular attendance, good work or conduct or other behaviour of the person employed, or otherwise, to a person employed in respect of his employment or of work done in such employment, and includes any bonus or other additional remuneration of the nature aforesaid which would be so payable and any sum payable to such person by reason of the termination of his employment but does not include travelling allowances, employees' contributions to provident funds, gratuities payable on discharge, or the value of any housing accommodation or services rendered to the worker by his employer.

(*c*) *Wage Periods.*—No wage period is to exceed one month and all wages are to be paid in coin and, or currency notes.

(*d*) *Time of Payment.*—The wages of all persons employed in concerns employing less than one thousand persons are to be paid before the expiry of the seventh day after the last day of the wage period in respect of which the wages are payable and in establishments employing more than one thousand persons before the expiry of the tenth day. Where employment is terminated by the employer, all due wages are required to be paid before the expiry of the second working day following that on which the employment is terminated.

(*e*) *Permissible Deductions.*—Deductions from wages are permitted only in respect of fines, absence from duty, damage to or loss of goods expressly entrusted to an employed person for custody, housing accommodation supplied by an employer, for recovery of advances or for adjustment of over-payments of wages, for income-tax, for contributions to or repayment of advances from provident funds, for schemes of postal insurance, for dues to co-operative societies and, on orders made by courts of law. Deductions are also permitted in respect of such amenities and services supplied by the employer as the Union Government or a State Government may, by general or special order, authorise. The Central Government promulgated a Payment of Wages Amendment Ordinance in 1940 amending the Act to enable deductions being made from wages with written authorisation of the employed person for investment in any War Savings Scheme approved by a State Government. The Act does not permit an employer to make deductions from wages in respect of the value of material damaged in the process of manufacture and to hand over the same to the employee concerned. Such a system was widely prevalent in certain centres of the textile industry in India and particularly in Ahmedabad where it was estimated that a total sum of nearly fifteen lakhs of rupees was deducted annually from the wages of about 25,000 weavers in respect of weaving fines and the value of damaged cloth handed over to them.

(*f*) *Fines.*—No fines are to be imposed on children, *i.e.*, persons below the age of fifteen years. No fines can be imposed save in respect of such acts or omissions as have been exhibited in notices which have received the approval of the State Government or of an authority which a State Government may prescribe in the matter and unless the person who is fined has been given an opportunity of showing cause against the fine. The total amount of fines which may be imposed on any person during any wage period is not to exceed half an anna in the rupee of wages for that wage period and no fine can be recovered in instalments or after the expiry of 60 days from the day on which it was imposed. All fines are to be recorded in prescribed registers and all realisations from fines are to be expended on objects beneficial to the workers. State Governments have been empowered to make rules in connection with most of these matters.

(*g*) *Deductions for Absence from Duty.*—Deductions from wages for periods of absence from duty should be *pro rata* and should not bear a larger proportion than the period of absence bears to the period of duty (*i.e.*, if the wage is Rs. 27 for 27 working days the deductions for 7 days absence must not be more than Rs. 7); provided that "subject to any rules made in this behalf by the Provincial Government if ten or more employed persons acting in concert absent themselves without due notice (that is to say without giving the notice which they are required to give either expressly by their contracts of employment or impliedly by the terms of their service) and without reasonable cause, such deduction from any such person may include such amount not exceeding his wages for eight days as may by any such contract or terms be due to the employer in lieu of due notice." By the Amending Act of 1937 an explanation was added to the Section dealing with this matter which provides that "an employed person shall be deemed to be absent from the place where he is required to work if although present in such place, he refuses to carry out his work."

(*h*) *Deductions for Recovery of Advances.*—Recovery of an advance of money given before employment began is to be made from the first payment of wages in respect of a complete wage period, but no recovery is to be made on advances given for travelling expenses; and recovery of advances of wages not already earned are to be subject to rules to be made by State Governments.

(*i*) *Contracting-Out.*—No contracting-out is permitted.

(*j*) *Procedure.*—State Governments are empowered to appoint Commissioners for Workmen's Compensation or any other persons with judicial experience as the authority to hear and decide all claims arising out of deductions from or non-payment of wages. Penalties have been laid down for malicious or vexatious claims. Appeals to courts of small causes are permitted and an elaborate procedure has been laid down with regard to trials for offences under the Act. Since the passing of the Act it has been found that the procedure laid down in Section 15 of the Act in connection with claims arising out of deductions from wages is a very dilatory one. The action is a civil one and it takes a long time before the case is brought to a decision. In many cases where applications are filed for non-payment of wages the employer is let off if he has paid wages to the workers concerned after the filing of the complaint and the Courts ignore the fact that even in such cases delay in making payments had occurred.

(*k*) *Administration.*—Inspectors of factories are made responsible for the administration of the Act as far as factories are concerned and powers are reserved to the Union Government and to State Governments to appoint such other persons as they think fit to be inspectors for the purposes of this Act for railways.

The present position is that in the case of persons employed in mines and on railways the responsibility of administering the Act rests upon the Chief Labour Commissioner (Central).

By an amendment in the Payment of Wages (Federal Railways) Rules the application of the Act has been extended to cover workers employed by railway contractors employing on an average 20 or more persons.

By a Notification in the Gazette of India the provisions of the Act (except sub-section 4 of section 8) have been made applicable to the payment of wages to all classes of persons employed in coal mines. In Madras, Coorg, Punjab, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Orissa, Delhi and West Bengal the provisions of the Act have been made operative in certain other industries such as plantations, omnibus services, etc.

MINIMUM WAGES ACT, 1948

The Minimum Wages Act, 1948 received the assent of the Governor-General on 15th March 1948. An amendment to the Act is now under discussion. The original Act of 1948 was designed to provide for the fixation of minimum wages in certain employments wherein sweated labour is prevalent or where there is a chance of exploitation of labour. The Act covers the following industries for types of establishments : Woollen carpet making or shawl weaving ; rice, flour or dal mills ; tobacco manufactories (including bidi making) ; plantations ; oil mills ; employment under any local authority ; road construction or building operations ; stone breaking or stone crushing ; lac manufactories ; mica works ; public motor transport ; tanneries and leather manufactories ; and agriculture. The appropriate Governments can extend the application of the Act to any industry wherein, in their opinion, minimum wages should statutorily be fixed.

The Act requires the Central or State Governments, as the case may be, to fix within two years from the passing of the Act minimum rates of wages payable to persons employed in the industries mentioned above. In the case of agriculture, however, minimum wages need be fixed only within three years. Minimum wages need not, however, be fixed in respect of employments in which there are in the whole State less than 1,000 employees. Under the Minimum Wages (Amendment) Act, 1950, however, minimum wages were to be fixed within three years in employments coming under both the schedules. A bill has recently been introduced in Parliament extending the time limit by another year in the case of employments in Part I of the Schedule and giving discretion to State Governments in regard to the time and the extent of application of the Act to employment in agriculture.

The Act provides for the fixation of minimum time rates, minimum piece rates, guaranteed time rates and overtime rates appropriate to different occupations, or localities and for adults, adolescents, children and apprentices. The minimum rate may consist of a basic rate and a cost of living allowance and/or cash value of concessions or it may be an all-inclusive rate.

The Act authorises the appropriate Governments to appoint Committees and Sub-Committees to hold inquiries and advise them to fix minimum rates of wages in respect of any scheduled employment or for the revision of these rates. They may also appoint an Advisory Board for co-ordinating the work of various Committees and also to advise Government generally in the matter of fixing or revising minimum rates of wages. The Central Government is to set up a Central Advisory Board for advising the Central and State Governments and for co-ordinating the work of State Advisory Boards. The Committees and Sub-Committees as well as the Central and State Advisory Boards are to consist of equal number of representatives of employers and employees, and of independent persons not exceeding a third of the total number of members.

The Central or the State Governments, as the case may be, can fix the number of hours of work per day, provide for a weekly holiday, etc., in regard to any employment in which minimum wages have been fixed under the Act.

The Central Government has now framed model rules under the Act for the guidance of State Governments. A Central Advisory Board has been constituted with representatives of the Central and State Governments and of employers and employees. The Central Government and several State Governments have already appointed competent authorities as required by the Act to ascertain, from time to time, the cost of living index number applicable to persons employed in the scheduled employments. Under powers conferred under Section 27 of the Act, the Governments of Madhya Pradesh, Bombay and Ajmer have extended the application of the Act to cement, potteries and glass industries; to the salt pan industry; and to the cotton textile industry respectively. Several State Governments, *e.g.*, Bombay, Madras, Punjab, Madhya Pradesh, West Bengal, Delhi and Ajmer, have appointed Committees, Advisory Boards etc. under the Act in respect of some of the scheduled employments. Some States have also notified minimum rates of wages for certain employments under Section 5(1) (b) of the Act. The States of Punjab and Delhi have fixed minimum wages for agriculture as well.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION ACT

In its main principles, the Indian Act which was brought into operation with effect from 1st July 1924, follows the British model but its precision and rigidity and the special machinery set up for its administration are some of the features which distinguish it from the British Act. In its scope—type and classes of workers covered—the original Act of 1923 fell far short of the British Act but it was necessary for the Government of India to adopt a policy of gradualness in the matter so as to secure the support of all interests to the original measure. The limitations of scope were to a large extent removed by amending Acts passed in 1926, 1929, 1931 and 1933.

Under the Act payment of compensation has been made obligatory on all employers whose employees come within its scope, and injured workmen or the dependents of those killed can obtain compensation in all cases where personal injury has been caused by accident *arising out of and in the course of employment* and where, except in the case of injury resulting in death, the accident is not directly attributable to the workman having been at the time of the accident under the influence of drink or drugs or to wilful disobedience of rules or orders or wilful disregard of safety devices.

Besides bodily injuries the contracting of certain occupational diseases such as anthrax and lead and phosphorus poisoning were deemed and treated for the purposes of compensation, as injuries caused by accident, provided however, that the worker concerned was in the service of the same employer for more than six months. Mercury poisoning was added to the list of original occupational diseases in 1926 in order to bring the Indian law into conformity with a Draft Convention adopted by the International Labour Conference in 1925.

This list was further expanded in 1933 and again in 1938 by the addition of (1) poisoning by benzene and its homologues or the sequelæ of such poisoning; (2) chrome ulceration or its sequelæ; (3) compressed air illness (Caisson Disease) or its sequelæ; (4) arsenical poisoning or its sequelæ; (5) pathological manifestations due to (*a*) radium and other radio-active substances, and (*b*) X-Rays; and (6) Primary epitheliomatous cancer of the skin.

Main Provisions.—The main provisions of the Workmen's Compensation Act as it stands today are as follows:

Classes of Workmen Covered by the Act.—These have been specified in the definition of the term "workman" contained in section 2(1) (*n*) and in Schedule II. In all cases persons employed in an administrative or clerical capacity and those whose monthly earnings exceed Rs. 400 (except Railway Servants) are excluded.

Speaking broadly, the Act covers railways; factories; mines; seamen; docks; persons employed in the construction, repair or demolition of buildings designed to be or which are of more than one storey or of twenty feet in height or of dams and embankments, roads, bridges or tunnels; or wharves, quays, sea walls or other marine work; the setting up, repairing, maintaining or taking down any telegraph or telephone line or overhead electric lines or cables; aerial ropeways, canals, pipe lines or sewers; the fire-brigade; railway mail service; persons employed in outdoor work in the postal and telegraphic services; operations for winning natural petroleum or natural gas; blasting operations and excavations; ferry boat services; cinchona, coffee, rubber or tea plantations; electricity or gas generating stations; lighthouses; cinematograph picture producing and exhibiting; divers; elephant and wild animal trainers and keepers and salaried motor drivers and cleaners. Recently persons employed in warehouses in markets employing ten or more persons have also been brought within the scope of the Act. Persons employed through sub-contractors by a person fulfilling a contract with a railway are also covered.

As far as seamen are concerned, those employed on ships registered in India are covered. But if accidents take place within the three mile limit of the territorial waters the Act applies even to those employed on ships not registered in India. But with a view to facilitating the settlement of claims in respect of seamen on ships not registered in India and to avoid litigation, provision has been made in the Lascar's Agreement for the settlement of claims for compensation on the lines of the Indian Act and in default of agreement the Commissioner of the Port where the agreements are signed has been accepted as the final authority to whom these matters should be referred for decision.

Not only workmen employed within the precincts of a factory or a mine but also men engaged in any kind of work incidental to or connected with a factory or any mining operation are entitled to the benefits of the Act. As far as factories are concerned, those using mechanical power and employing more than ten persons or those not using mechanical power and employing more than fifty persons are covered.

The State Governments are empowered to bring within the scope of the Act other classes of workmen whose occupations are considered to be of a hazardous nature.

Any person who is covered by the Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948, and who is entitled to receive disablement or dependant's benefit from the Employees' State Insurance Corporation is not entitled to claim any compensation from the employer under this Act.

Amount of Compensation.—The amount of compensation payable depends, in the case of death, on the average monthly wages of the deceased workman and in the case of an injured workman both on the average monthly wages and the extent of disablement. The term 'wages' includes overtime pay and the value of any concessions or benefits in the form of food, clothing, free quarters, etc. After the monthly wages of a worker are calculated the amount of compensation due is decided by a reference to Schedule IV which gives in a tabular form the amounts of compensation for death, permanent total and temporary disablement in respect of each of seventeen wage classes.

The amounts of compensation payable in the case of an injured workman whose monthly wages are not more than Rs. 10 are Rs. 500 for death, Rs. 700 for permanent total and half the monthly wages for temporary disablement. For a workman whose monthly wages are between Rs. 50 and Rs. 60, the corresponding figures are Rs. 1,800, Rs. 2,520 and Rs. 15 respectively. The maxima for persons earning over Rs. 300 per month are Rs. 4,500, Rs. 6,300 and Rs. 30 per month respectively. In the case of minors the amounts of compensation for death and for permanent total disablement are at a uniform rate of Rs. 200 and Rs. 1,200 respectively, and half the monthly wage for temporary disablement.

No compensation is payable in respect of a 'waiting period' of seven days following that on which the injury was caused; but many large firms such as General Motors (India), Ltd., Messrs. Lever Brothers (India), Ltd., and others pay compensation in lieu of wages with effect from the date of injury.

(NOTE: *Permanent total disablement* means such disablement which permanently incapacitates a workman for all work which he was capable of performing at the time of his accident. Any combination of injuries totalling 100 per cent. loss in earning capacity is regarded as permanent total disablement even if the combination of injuries does not arise in one accident.)

Dependents.—These are defined in two categories: firstly, those who are in practically all cases actually dependents; and secondly, those who may or may not be in that position. The first includes a widow, a minor legitimate son, unmarried legitimate daughter and a widowed mother. The second includes a widower, a parent other than a widowed mother, a minor illegitimate son, an unmarried illegitimate daughter, a minor legitimate or illegitimate daughter if married or widowed, a minor brother, an unmarried or widowed sister, a widowed daughter-in-law, a minor child of a deceased son and a paternal grandparent.

The interests of dependents in cases of fatal accidents have been safeguarded by ensuring that (1) all cases of fatal accidents should be brought to the notice of the Commissioner; (2) in all cases where an employer admits liability the amount of compensation payable is to be promptly deposited with the Commissioner; and (3) in cases where the employer disclaims liability and there are good grounds for believing compensation to be payable, the dependents get the information necessary to enable them to judge if they should make a claim or not.

A contractor has been given the right to be indemnified by his sub-contractor if he has had to pay compensation either to a principal or to a workman.

An employer is permitted to make to any dependent advances on account of compensation not exceeding an aggregate of one hundred rupees and so much of such aggregate as does not exceed the compensation payable to that dependent is to be deducted by the Commissioner from such compensation and repaid to the employer. Further, the Commissioner may deduct a sum up to Rs. 25 from the amount of compensation for the funeral expenses of a deceased workman and pay the same to the person by whom such expenses were incurred.

Administration.—The Act is administered entirely on a State basis by Commissioners appointed by State Governments. The States of West Bengal and Madras have one Commissioner each for the whole State. The State of Bombay has one Commissioner for the more important industrial areas and for the other areas sub-judges have been appointed as ex-officio Commissioners for Workmen's Compensation. In the other States the District Magistrate or the District and Sessions Judge or the Senior or Sub-Judge is the Commissioner within his jurisdiction.

Under the common law of England, in civil suits for damages for injuries sustained by workmen it is open to the employer to plead: (1) the doctrine of common employment, by which the employer is not normally liable to pay damages to a workman for an injury resulting from the default of another workman; (2) the doctrine of assumed risk, by which an employee is presumed to have accepted a risk if it is such that he ought to have known it to be part of the risks of his occupation.

The Royal Commission on labour regarded both these doctrines as inequitable and recommended by a majority that a measure should be enacted abrogating these defences. State governments were consulted in 1932 and were almost unanimously in favour of legislation for the purpose. In the meantime judicial decisions in India while generally agreeing as to the inequitability of the doctrines were such as to leave it open to employers in most States to have recourse to them. The Government of India passed the Employers' Liability Act, 1938, through the Central Legislature declaring that these defences shall not be raised in suits for damages in India in respect of injuries sustained by workmen.

Amendments.—During the year 1939, two amendments were made in the Workmen's Compensation Act, one in Section 5 and the other in Section 15. The first clarifies the meaning of the expression "monthly wages" which has now been defined to mean the amount of wages deemed to be payable for a month's service irrespective of whether the wages are payable by the month or by whatever other period or at piece rates. The amendment thus resolves a doubt as to whether a workman employed on wages payable otherwise than by the month or on a monthly basis is or is not a workman within the meaning of the Act. The Personal Injuries (Emergency Provisions 2 and 3 Geo. 6, C. 82) Act, 1939, provides for certain payments to be made in respect of personal injuries to seamen. The Workmen's Compensation Act had, therefore, to be amended in order to avoid double payment, both under this Act and under the Personal Injuries Act.

The second amendment referred to above provides that failure to give notice or make a claim or commence proceedings within the time limit required by the Act shall not be a bar to the maintenance of the proceedings provided that the Commissioner is satisfied that an application was made in the reasonable belief that the injury was such that a payment could be made under the said Act and that the Provincial Government certifies that the application was rejected.

The Government of India in the Ministry of Commerce, formulated a Lascars War Risk Compensation Scheme in August 1940 in respect of death or disablement directly attributable to war injuries sustained by lascars employed on ships registered in the United Kingdom. The scheme provides for widows' pensions, children's allowances and generous disablement allowances.

It often happens, in cases before Commissioners for Workmen's Compensation, that there is a dispute between the parties on medical questions. In such cases the usual practice is to call in private medical practitioners to give verbal evidence on the points in dispute. This not only increases the cost of the proceedings but tends to delay settlements. With a view to preventing this unsatisfactory, dilatory and expensive procedure, the Government of old undivided Bengal passed the Workmen's Compensation (Bengal Amendment) Act, 1942 for the appointment of medical referees whose report would be binding on both the parties. This Act also provides for the creation of a permanent panel of qualified medical practitioners who may be appointed as medical referees.

STATISTICS

All State Governments in India used to publish Annual Administration Reports on the working of the Workmen's Compensation Act. The Government of India summarised these Reports and published an annual survey under the title "Statistics of Workmen's Compensation". The Government of India stopped the publication of these summaries in 1939, but revived it later. An annual note on the working of the Act is also being published regularly in the Indian Labour Gazette which is being issued by the Labour Bureau of the Government of India.

The latest available statistics on the subject will be found in the following table :—

Year	Total number of cases	Total compensation paid
		Rs.
1940	41,015	19,38,476
1941	39,045	15,84,293
1942	44,443	18,69,359
1943 †	44,826	22,83,991
1944 ¶	31,581	16,96,494
1945	67,390	42,25,339
1946 ‡	55,241	36,25,808
1947 @	53,574	33,26,495
1948	66,776	42,20,068
1949	92,763	44,26,218

† Excludes figures for Bombay.
¶ Excludes figures for Bombay and Madras.
‡ Excluding Punjab and Sind.
@ Excluding figures for Punjab.

Accident Insurance.—Facilities for accident insurance are now being provided by a number of leading insurance companies in the country and the most important of these are the Claims Bureau in Calcutta and Madras. In Bombay insurance companies are now concerned with half the number of cases that come up before the Commissioner. Insurance companies as a rule contest only cases involving questions of law or principle and are of benefit to all concerned.

The Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association, Ltd., Bombay, is an organisation of employers one of whose objects is the mutual insurance of members against liability to pay compensation or damages to workmen employed by them or their dependants for injuries or accidents, fatal or otherwise, arising out of or in the course of employment.

MATERNITY BENEFIT

A Bill introduced by Mr. N. M. Joshi in the Central Legislative Assembly in 1924 to provide for the payment of maternity benefits to women employed in certain industries was not passed. The Government of Bombay, however, took up the question a few years later and the Bombay Maternity Benefit Act was passed in 1929. This was substantially amended by an Amending Act passed in 1935. A similar Act was passed in Madhya Pradesh in 1931. These were the first Acts of their kind in India. Since then, Maternity Benefit Acts have also been passed in the States of Madras, old undivided Bengal, Assam, old undivided Punjab, Bihar and Uttar Pradesh. The Bombay Act was, with certain modifications extended to Ajmer-Merwara and Delhi. In the year 1948 the West Bengal Legislature passed a separate Act for women employed in tea plantations under the title of the Bengal Maternity Benefit (Tea Estates) Act, 1948. Except for the Assam Maternity Benefit Act which covers women employed in both factories and on plantations and the Bengal Act, all the other Maternity Benefit Acts are applicable to women employed in factories only.

The subject of extending the benefits of such legislation to women employed in Mines was discussed at the Second Conference of Labour Ministers held in January 1941 and as the result of those discussions the Central Legislature passed the Mines Maternity Benefit Act, 1941, in the same year. This Act was amended in 1943 in such a way as to prevent a woman from being debarred from drawing benefit for a day on which the mine is closed and a further amendment of the Act was made in 1945 making special provisions for women employed underground. Consequent on the reimposition in 1946 of the ban on the employment of women underground, the Amendment Act of 1945 was repealed in 1948.

The main principles in all Maternity Benefit Legislation are the same: provision for the payment of a cash benefit to women for specified periods before and after childbirth, a compulsory period of rest after delivery and also before delivery if notice is given; but, in the latter case, the period for which an employer has to pay cash benefit is strictly limited. All Acts specify a qualifying period for the earning of the benefit: this varies from six months to a year. Women are prohibited, under penalty, from accepting employment under another employer during periods for which they are in receipt of cash benefit from the employer with whom this liability rests.

In the Central Act for women employed in Mines and in the U.P. Act additional bonuses of Rs. 3 and Rs. 5 respectively are provided for if the services of a qualified midwife are availed of; but, if such assistance is provided for by or in an institution of an employer, this bonus is not to be paid.

In U.P. and Bihar the Acts lay down that factories employing a certain number of women should maintain creches and appoint health visitors for looking after the welfare of the women workers.

Assam Act.—The Assam Act has certain provisions which are not met with in the other State Acts and the Central Government's Mines Maternity Benefit Act. One such provision is that no employer shall knowingly employ a woman in any job during the four weeks immediately preceding the day of her delivery save upon such suitable light work as may be recommended by a medical practitioner. The other Acts prohibit only the employment of women during the four weeks immediately following childbirth.

By another provision an employer is required either himself to provide upon the premises to which the Act applies free medical treatment and attendance for every woman entitled to maternity benefit, or to make such arrangements with a medical practitioner to provide such treatment and attendance during pregnancy, and at, and after confinement. If a woman declines to accept this free medical attendance and treatment provided by the employer or leaves the service of the employer, she forfeits the maternity benefit which is admissible to her under the Act. No qualifying period is required in the case of an immigrant woman who was pregnant when she first arrived in Assam.

The Act provides for the payment of maternity benefit at weekly rates unlike the daily rates found in the other Act. It provides for payment—(*i*) on plantations at the rate of Re. 1 per week during the period preceding the day of delivery and Rs.1-4-0 per week during the period following the day of delivery, provided that the total cash payment which the employer shall be required to make on this account shall be Rs. 14; and (*ii*) in employments other than plantations Rs. 2 per week or the average weekly wage or salary subject to a minimum of Rs. 2 per week. The Assam Government propose to amend the Act so as to raise the rate of benefit to 12 annas per day.

The qualifying period in the Central and in the U.P. Acts is six months and in the Ajmer-Merwara Act twelve months. In all the remaining Acts it is nine months. The maximum period for which maternity benefits can be paid is six weeks under the Ajmer-Merwara Act, seven weeks under the Madras Act, sixty days under the Punjab Act and eight weeks under all the other Acts. The rate of benefit used to be eight annas per day or the average daily wage whichever was less in most Acts but many Acts are now adopting a uniform eight annas a day. The Punjab Act gives average daily earnings or twelve annas per day whichever is greater.

THE TRADE UNIONS ACT, 1926

The origin of the passing of a Trade Unions Act in India was the historic Buckingham Mill Case of 1920 in which the Madras High Court granted an interim injunction against the Strike Committee of the Madras Labour Union forbidding them to induce certain workers to break their contract of employment by refusing to return to work. Trade Union leaders found that they were liable to prosecution and imprisonment for *bona fide* union activities and it was felt that some legislation for the protection of trade unions was necessary.

In March, 1921, Mr. N. M. Joshi, successfully moved a resolution in the Central Legislative Assembly recommending that government should introduce legislation for the registration and protection of trade unions. Opposition from employers to the adoption of such a measure was, however, so great that it was not until 1926 that the Indian Trade Unions Act was passed. This Act was brought into operation with effect from 1st June 1927 and was slightly amended in 1928 to facilitate the procedure of appeal against the decision of the Registrar refusing or cancelling the certificate of registration of trade unions by employers.

Apart from the necessary provisions for administration and penalties, the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, makes provision for three matters: (1) conditions governing the registration of trade unions; (2) the obligations to which a trade union is subject after registration; and (3) the rights and privileges accorded to registered unions. 'Trade Union' has been defined in such a way as to cover both combinations of workers and of employers but not of workers and employers. Persons under the age of 15 are debarred from membership of any registered union.

Registration.—The administration of the Act is entirely on a State basis and each State Government is required to appoint a Registrar of Trade Unions. A union is to be registered in the State in which its head office is situated and if this is transferred to another State, the registration has to be transferred to that State. Any seven or more members of a union can apply for registration but no union can be registered unless (1) its rules provide for certain statutory matters which have been laid down in Section 6; and (2) its executive is constituted in accordance with the requirements of Section 22 which lays down that at least fifty per cent. of the executive must consist of members actually engaged in the unit or group of units which the union proposes to cover.

The registration of a union may be cancelled or withdrawn at any time by the Registrar on the application of the union itself, or if the Registrar is satisfied that the certificate has been obtained by fraud or mistake, or that the union has ceased to exist or has wilfully and after notice contravened any provision of the Act, or if it has allowed any rule which is inconsistent with the Act to continue in force or has rescinded any rule which is required by the Act. Any union aggrieved by the refusal of a Registrar to register it or by the cancellation of its registration may prefer an appeal to a judge appointed by the State Government for the purpose; and, in the event of the dismissal of such an appeal, the aggrieved party has the right of a further appeal to the High Court.

Obligations, Rights.—The general funds of registered trade unions cannot be spent on objects other than those specified in Section 15 of the Act nor on political objects; but the Act makes provision for the creation of a separate political fund, subscription to which may be collected from such members as voluntarily desire to contribute to it. All registered unions are required to submit annually to the Registrar duly audited statements of accounts in prescribed forms together with changes in officers and the executive and a copy of the rules corrected up to date. Notices of all changes in the rules or of the registered name or the registered address of the office of the union, of amalgamations with other unions or of dissolution must be submitted to the Registrar in prescribed forms within prescribed periods of their occurrence.

Failure to carry out these obligations may result either in the cancellation of a union's registration or by the imposition of a fine. The Act further requires that the rules of every registered union should make adequate provision for the inspection of books of accounts and lists of members by the officers and members of the union. The Government of Madras have tightened up their regulations in connection with the maintenance, by registered unions of their registers. Among other things, all unions will now be required to maintain files of vouchers and machine-numbered subscription receipt books.

The Act confers on registered unions the right to corporate existence and of perpetual succession with power to acquire and hold both movable and immovable property and to enter into contracts. A registered trade union is immune from prosecution for criminal conspiracy in respect of an agreement, unless it is one to commit an offence, made between its members for the furtherance of a trade dispute or for restraint of trade and from any legal difficulties arising therefrom. It also enjoys immunity from civil suits in certain cases.

Registered unions are empowered to carry on any form of insurance activity without being under any obligation to secure professional advice as to the actuarial soundness of such business. By virtue of Section 118 of The Insurance Act, 1938, insurance business carried on by a trade union is not subject to the provisions of that Act.

One of the most vexed questions in connection with trade unions in India is that of their recognition by the employers. Many Bills aimed at compelling employers to recognise unions of their workers were introduced by private members in State Legislatures but these failed to carry the support of the Governments concerned. The subject was discussed at the Second Session of the Labour Ministers Conference and, as a result of the decisions then reached, the Government of India drafted a Bill intended to add a New Chapter dealing with the Recognition of Trade Unions and Rights and Liabilities of Recognised Trade Unions to the Indian Trade Unions Act. This was circulated to all State Governments for opinion after consultation with the interests concerned. In the light of the criticisms received, the Government of India drafted a new Bill on the subject and this was introduced in the Central Legislative Assembly by the Hon'ble the Labour Member on the 13th November 1943, and became law in November 1947.

Besides providing for compulsory recognition of representative trade unions by the employers the Act specifies certain acts as unfair practices on the part of employers and recognised trade unions and provides for punishment of a fine in the case of employers and withdrawal of recognition in the case of trade unions. The Act, however, has not been brought into force and already a bill has been introduced in Parliament for the consolidation of trade union law. This bill is meeting with considerable opposition from certain sections of labour.

Statistics.—As far as statistics of registrations are concerned, tables showing the numbers of registered unions on all the State registers in India at the end of each financial year together with the membership and income of those which furnished returns, have been incorporated in this section in some previous issues of this publication. A table giving this information for the years 1927-28 up to 1939-40 was published at page 487 of the Edition for 1942-43. As we have pointed out in the opening paragraphs of this Chapter, the Government of India and the State Governments had temporarily stopped the publication of annual reports on the administration of Labour Laws.

The Government of India were however publishing short and abridged reports containing the more important statistics in the *Indian Labour Gazette*. In 1947 the Labour Bureau of the Government of India started publishing annual reports on the working of the Trade Unions Act. The statistics relating to registered trade unions for the year 1948-49 are reproduced below:

NUMBER AND MEMBERSHIP OF REGISTERED TRADE UNIONS DURING 1948-49 BY STATES

State	Number of Unions on Registers	Number of Unions submitting Returns	Membership of Unions submitting Returns		
			Men	Women	Total
Central Unions	105	88	4,72,036	2,317	4,74,353
State Unions—					
Ajmer-Merwara	16	15	5,263	269	5,532
Assam	71	43	83,649	24,076	1,07,725
Bihar	315	141	1,31,511	16,723	1,48,234
Bombay	410	295	3,86,121	30,270	4,21,128
Coorg	1	1	320	—	320
Delhi	59	48	25,098	388	25,486
Madhya Pradesh ..	88	60	28,988	4,602	33,590
Madras	597	296	1,25,662	20,017	1,50,180
Orissa	72	27	12,805	602	13,407
Punjab	8	8	2,811	55	2,866
Uttar Pradesh	359	292	1,36,510	1,893	1,38,403
West Bengal	1,049	534	4,20,740	18,143	4,38,883
TOTAL	3,150	1,848	1,831,514	1,19,355	19,60,883

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES ACT

Recent years have witnessed a great deal of activity both on the part of the Central Government and of the State Governments in considering and enacting measures for the prevention and settlement of industrial disputes. Till the year 1929 the only law relating to the settlement of trade disputes was the Employers and Workmen (Disputes) Act of 1860. The Royal Commission on Labour in India referred to the necessity of establishing a permanent statutory machinery to deal with labour disputes. The Government of India in a Bill which they introduced in 1934 to make the 1929 Act permanent included in it some of the suggestions made by the Commission. This Bill was passed in April 1934. In 1936 an amending Bill was introduced which was passed into law in 1938. This new legislation provided for the appointment of Conciliation Officers, extended the scope of the Act to cover certain other trade disputes and some other public utility services.

The war showed certain inherent defects in this legislation and made it necessary for Government to supplement the Law by the enforcement of Rule 81 (A) of the Defence of India Rules.

According to this Rule, the Government could refer any dispute for arbitration and enforce the award. The enforcement of this Rule in the large number of cases proved of great benefit both for labour, industry and the community as it considerably assisted in diminishing industrial strife. The enforcement of this rule was, however, a temporary measure and it was decided therefore, in 1946 to introduce the Industrial Disputes Bill in the Legislative Assembly which was passed into an Act in March 1947.

The Act provides for setting up of two types of organisations, namely, (1) Works Committees and (2) Industrial Tribunals for the prevention and settlement of disputes. It makes conciliation compulsory in all disputes in public utility services and optional in other cases.

Section 22 of the Act declares any strike or lock-out in a public utility service to be illegal if it is commenced or declared (i) without giving to the employer or employees, as the case may be, a notice of strike or lock-out in a prescribed manner, within six weeks before striking or declaring a lock-out, or (ii) within 14 days of giving such notice, or (iii) before the expiry of the date of strike specified in any such notice ; or (iv) during the pendency of any conciliation proceedings before a conciliation officer and 7 days after the conclusion of such proceedings, etc. The Act also prohibits certain other strikes and lock-outs and declares them illegal if commenced or declared during the pendency of (i) conciliation proceedings before a Board and 7 days after the conclusion of such proceedings ; (ii) proceedings before a Tribunal and 2 months after the conclusion of such proceedings, or (iii) during any period in which a settlement or award is in operation, in respect of any of the matters covered by the settlement or award.

Government have introduced in Parliament the Industrial Relations Bill with a view to consolidating and amending the various State and Central laws on the subject. The principal object of the bill is to ensure uniformity in the principles underlying the law. This bill has, however, been the subject matter of considerable controversy especially on the part of labour.

Statistics

Statistics of industrial disputes in India have been collected since 1921. The following table sets out the number of disputes in some of the years since 1921, the number of persons affected by these disputes and the total time lost in man-days :

Year.	Number of disputes.	Number of workpeople involved.	Number of working days lost.
1921 ..	396	600,351	6,984,426
1926 ..	128	186,811	1,097,478
1931 ..	166	203,008	2,408,123
1936 ..	157	169,029	2,358,062
1939 ..	406	409,189	4,992,795
1940 ..	322	452,539	7,577,281
1941 ..	359	291,054	3,330,503
1942 ..	694	772,653	5,779,965
1943 ..	716	525,088	2,342,287
1944 ..	658	550,015	3,447,306
1945 ..	820	747,530	4,054,499
1946 ..	1,629	1,961,948	12,717,762
1947 ..	1,811	1,840,784	16,562,666
1948 ..	1,259	1,059,120	7,837,173
1949 ..	920	685,457	6,600,595
1950			
Jan. ..	101	76,169	231,695
Feb. ..	88	46,546	337,803
March ..	84	49,699	488,755
April ..	96	50,295	329,555
May ..	111	74,337	313,451
June ..	83	45,715	322,946
July ..	56	21,188	134,911
Aug. ..	75	240,518	2,948,743
Sept. ..	70	249,431	4,979,815
Oct. ..	78	288,002	2,242,981
Nov. ..	83	54,192*	305,659†
Dec. ..	68	41,061	163,718

* Not known in 8 cases.
† Not known in 10 cases.

Statistics presented in this section relate to industrial disputes which have resulted in work-stoppages involving 10 or more workers. The yearly figures relate to the actual number of strikes and lock-outs in existence and the workers involved during the year, not being a summation in each case of the monthly figures. The figures for 1949 are more comprehensive than the earlier figures as efforts are now being made to secure complete information regarding disputes in the Central Sphere.

All the monthly figures are provisional.

THE INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES (Appellate Tribunal) Act, 1950.

The divergent and sometimes conflicting decisions given by the various Tribunals set up in different States under the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947 created serious anomalies leading to discontent and bitterness among parties to industrial disputes. To meet this situation the Government of India enacted the Industrial Disputes (Apellate Tribunal) Act, 1950 to enable them to set up a Labour Appellate Tribunal which would hear appeals from awards or decisions of Industrial Tribunals, Industrial Courts, Wage Boards, and other statutory bodies set up by the Central or State Governments to adjudicate on industrial disputes.

The Appellate Tribunal is to consist of a Chairman and such number of other members as the Government may, from time to time, think fit to appoint. The Chairman is authorised to constitute as many benches of the Appellate Tribunal as he may consider necessary. Each bench is to consist of not less than two members, one of whom is to be appointed as the President. The Appellate Tribunal is empowered to hear appeals from any award or decision of an adjudicating authority if (*i*) the appeal involves any substantial question of law, or (*ii*) the award or decision relates to wages, bonus or travelling allowance, employers' contribution to any pension or provident fund, gratuity payable on discharge, classification by grades, retrenchment and any other matter which may be prescribed by rules made under the Act. No appeal, however, can be preferred by any party (*i*) from any award made by the Industrial Tribunal appointed by the Government of India in June 1949 to decide industrial disputes in banking companies, (*ii*) from any award or decision of a Tribunal made with the consent of parties, (*iii*) from any settlement arrived at between the parties in the course of conciliation proceedings, or (*iv*) from any decision of an arbitrator appointed under any law with the consent of parties to settle the dispute.

The Act provides that all appeals should be preferred within 30 days from the date of publication of the award or decision or, where no provision for the publication of the award has been made, within 30 days from the date of making the award. The Appellate Tribunal is entitled to confirm, vary or reverse the award or decision appealed from and to award relief to the appellant. It can also determine and award costs. The decision of the Appellate Tribunal become binding on the expiry of 30 days from the date of their pronouncement. The appropriate Government can, however, reject or modify any decision before the expiry of the period of 30 days, if they feel that it would be inexpedient on public grounds to give effect to the whole or any part of the decision. In all such cases the Government concerned should place the decision together with their reason for rejecting or modifying it before the Legislature concerned.

During the period of 30 days allowed for filing the appeal or during the pendency of an appeal no employer shall alter the conditions of service to the prejudice of the workmen concerned nor shall he discharge or punish any such workman without obtaining the written permission of the Appellate Tribunal.

The Appellate Tribunal was constituted on 8th August 1950 and Mr. J. N. Majumdar was appointed Chairman. At present the Appellate Tribunal has four other members and two benches are functioning, one in Bombay and the other in Calcutta.

TEA DISTRICTS EMIGRANT LABOUR ACT

One of the earliest labour laws in India was the Assam Labour and Emigration Act of 1901 which was designed mainly to regulate the recruitment and engagement of indentured labour for the tea plantations in that State. The Act was amended in 1908 and 1915. These Acts aimed, among other things, at the abolition of the indentured labour system. The abolition of the system, however, did not become effective till the repeal of the Workemen's Breach of Contract Act, in 1926. The whole question was subjected to a thorough examination by the Government of India and the State Governments in 1926-28 and by the Royal Commission on Indian Labour in 1929-30.

The Commission recommended that the existing legislation should be replaced by a new enactment which should provide : (*a*) that no assisted emigrants from controlled areas should be forwarded to the Assam tea gardens except through a depot maintained either by the tea industry or by suitable groups of employers and approved by the State Government ; (*b*) that the Government of India should have power to frame rules regarding transit arrangements, in particular for the laying down of certain prescribed routes to Assam and for the maintenance of depots at necessary intervals; (*c*) that the power conferred by section 3 of the 1901 Act to prohibit recruitment for Assam in particular localities should be withdrawn immediately; (*d*) that the existing Assam Labour Board should be abolished and that in its place a Controller of Immigrants in Assam should be appointed to look after the interests of emigrants from other States ; (*e*) that every future assisted emigrant to an Assam tea garden should have the right after the first three years to be repatriated at his employer's expense, and that the Controller should be empowered to repatriate a garden worker at the expense of the employer within one year of his arrival if it is found necessary on the grounds of health, unsuitability of the work to his personal capacity or for other sufficient reason ; and (*f*) that in the event of the recrudescence of abuses, Government should have power to reintroduce in any area the prohibition of recruitment otherwise than by means of licensed *garden-sirdars* and licensed recruiters.

The Government of India implemented these recommendations in the Tea Districts Emigrant Labour Act, 1932, which was brought into effect from the 1st October 1933.

The first object of this Act is to make it possible, on the one hand, to exercise all the control over the recruitment and forwarding of assisted emigrants to the Assam tea gardens as may be justified and required by the interests of actual and potential emigrants; and, on the other hand, to ensure that no restrictions are imposed which are not justified. State Governments are empowered, subject to the control of the Government of India, to impose control over the forwarding of assisted emigrants (chapter III) or over both their recruitment and their forwarding as occasion may dictate (chapters III and IV).

The forwarding of recruits to Assam must be made through the prescribed routes where arrangements for feeding, rest and medical treatment have been made and by authorised forwarding agents. It is made unlawful to assist persons under 16 to migrate unless they are accompanied by their parents or guardians. A married woman who is living with her husband may only be assisted to emigrate with the consent of the husband.

Repatriation.—Full effect was given to the Royal Commission's recommendations regarding repatriation (sections 7 to 11) and it is further provided that where an employer fails to make all the necessary arrangements for the repatriation of a worker within fifteen days from the date on which a right of repatriation arises to an emigrant labourer, the Controller may direct the employer to despatch such labourer and his family or to pay him such compensation as may be prescribed within such period as the Controller may fix (sections 13 and 15).

Section 3 of the Act makes provision for the appointment of a Controller of Emigrant Labour with some staff and possibly one or more Deputy Controllers for supervising the general administration of the system which the Act seeks to establish. The charges for this establishment are to be met from an annual cess called the Emigrants Labour Cess which is to be levied at such rate not exceeding Rs. 9 per emigrant as the Central Government may determine for each year of levy.

The cess is collected by the Controller by the sale of certificates of emigration. Every assisted emigrant has to be provided by the employing interest on whose behalf he was recruited with such a certificate. All particulars about the emigrant together with a running record of the details of his employment in Assam are given on it. Failure to provide a certificate is punishable with a fine which may extend to Rs. 500. The rate of cess was reduced by the Government of India from Rs. 5 to Rs. 3 from 1st October 1938. It was subsequently raised to Rs. 4 for the year commencing 1st October 1939. In 1945, the cess was levied at the rate of Rs. 3 per assisted emigrant but was again reduced to Rs. 2 in 1946. For the year 1949-50 the rate of the cess was fixed at Rs. 3 and the same rate has been continued for 1950-51.

The provisions of this Act were intended, in the first instance, to apply only to emigration for work on tea plantations in eight specified districts in Assam, but power is retained to extend its application to other industries and to other districts in Assam if necessary.

The following details taken from the latest available Administration Report of the Controller of Emigrant Labour would be of interest :—

During the year 1948-49, the number of assisted emigrants was 34,213. There were also 9,108 non-assisted emigrants. The *per capita* cost of recruitment was Rs. 124-5-11 as compared with Rs. 107-4-2 during the previous year.

The number of adults and children living on tea estates in Assam was 497,532 and 497,289 respectively making the total of 9,94,821.

The Indian Tea Association have set up a Labour Department to look after the welfare of labour.

SHOPS AND COMMERCIAL ESTABLISHMENTS

The first laws in India for regulating conditions of work of employees in shops and commercial establishments was passed by the Government of Bombay in 1939. The Governments of the Punjab and Bengal enacted similar legislation in 1940. The Punjab Act was extended to Delhi in 1942. The Governments of Madras, U.P. and Madhya Pradesh passed laws to regulate conditions of work of shops and commercial employees in 1947 and the Government of Assam passed an Act on the subject in 1948. The Central Government have also passed an Act, namely the Weekly Holidays Act, 1942, which applies to those States which notify its application to them. The Bombay Government appointed in 1946 a Committee to enquire into the working of the Bombay Shops and Commercial Establishments Act, 1939. Based largely on the recommendations of this Committee a new Act was passed in 1949 which repealed the 1939 Act. During 1949 the Madhya Pradesh and U.P. Acts were amended. The provisions of the Acts are briefly described below.

Scope :—Subject to certain exceptions the Acts apply to shops, commercial establishments, restaurants and places of amusement in certain selected urban centres. The Government can extend their application to other concerns and other areas which they consider necessary. Some employees such as those employed in a confidential capacity and those whose work is of an intermittent character are excluded from the scope of the Acts.

Hours of work, rest intervals :—The Bombay, Madhya Pradesh and Assam Acts have fixed daily hours of work at nine. In U.P. and Madras the daily hours are eight while in West Bengal and the Punjab a ten-hour day has been prescribed. Rest intervals, of half an hour are prescribed in the West Bengal, U.P. and the Punjab Acts while an hour's interval has been granted in the Assam, Bombay, U.P. and Madras Acts. Opening and closing hours have also been fixed by the Acts. The Assam and West Bengal Acts, however, prescribe only closing hours. Most of the Acts also fix the maximum overtime work that can be taken from the employees. In some cases slightly different hours of work have been fixed for employees of commercial establishments, restaurants and places of amusement.

Holidays, Leave :—Provision has been made in all the Acts for weekly closure of shops and establishments although in some Acts, for example in Bombay and Assam, theatres, hotels, etc. are exempted from this provision. In addition to the weekly holiday, provision for privilege leave of 12 to 15 days in a year has been made in all the Acts. The Assam, West Bengal, Madras and U.P. Acts make further provision for casual leave and sick leave of 10 to 12 days and 12 to 30 days respectively.

Employment of children, young persons :—All the Acts, except the Bengal Act, have made provision for the regulation of employment of children and young persons. The minimum age for the employment of children in Assam, and Madhya Pradesh is 12 while in Madras and U.P., it is 14. The hours of work for children and young persons are 7 per day in the Punjab, Madras and Madhya Pradesh and 6 in Bombay and U.P. Children are not allowed to work after 7 p.m. in Bombay, Madras and the Punjab and after 9 p.m. in Madhya Pradesh.

Payment of Wages :—The Bombay Act empowers the Government to apply the provisions of the Payment of Wages Act to establishments covered by the Shops and Commercial Establishments Act. In Madras and U.P. the wage period should not exceed one month and in the Punjab it should not exceed a fortnight. The Assam Act fixes the wage period at one month. After they become due wages should be paid within 10 days in Assam and West Bengal, 7 days in U.P. and 5 days in Madras. In the Punjab wages should be paid on demand at the expiry of the wage period. Overtime wages are payable at twice the ordinary rates in Madras, U.P. and the Punjab, at one and a half times in Bombay and Madhya Pradesh and at one and a quarter times the ordinary rate in Bengal. Hotels, restaurants and other eating places in Bombay are, however, required to pay overtime wages at twice the ordinary rate. Fines and deductions are regulated under the Madras and U.P. Acts.

One Month's previous notice or one month's wages in lieu of notice before discharge is stipulated in the Acts of U.P., Punjab, Madras and Madhya Pradesh. The Bombay Act provides for only 14 days' notice or pay in lieu thereof. The Madras and Bombay Acts make provisions relating to cleanliness, ventilation, lighting and precautions against fire in establishments covered by the Acts.

The Weekly Holidays Act, 1942 provides for a weekly closure of shops and for the grant of a weekly holiday to employees. The Act has been enforced in Bihar, Ajmer, Coorg and Orissa.

Some of the States conducted a census of shops and commercial establishments which showed that the number of shops, etc. and the number of persons employed therein during 1948 were as follows :—

State	Number of shops, etc.	Number of persons employed
Assam	2,182	4,313
Bombay	90,636	218,451
Madhya Pradesh ..	5,460	32,500
Madras	224,570	285,470
Punjab	61,172	35,593
Ajmer	11,216	5,897
Delhi	28,076	35,745

INDUSTRIAL STATISTICS ACT

The collection of statistics regarding wages, conditions of employment and other matters relating to industry had hitherto been effected through the goodwill and voluntary effort of the industrial units concerned. This method was not considered satisfactory.

The Government of India introduced a Bill on the subject in the Central Legislative Assembly on the 27th February 1942 and this was passed into law at the same session with the title of The Industrial Statistics Act, 1942.

The Act permits the collection of statistics with regard to any of the following matters : (1) prices of commodities ; (2) attendance ; (3) living conditions including housing, water-supply and sanitation ; (4) indebtedness ; (5) rents ; (6) wages and earnings ; (7) provident and other funds provided for labour ; (8) benefits and amenities provided for labour ; (9) hours of work ; (10) employment and unemployment ; and (11) industrial and labour disputes. Penalties are provided for persons refusing to supply information or failing to furnish the required returns. State Governments are empowered to appoint an officer to be the Statistics Authority for the purposes of the collection of any statistics under the Act and that Authority, when once appointed, has the power to call upon employers to furnish the information required. Penalties are also provided for in the Act for improper disclosure of information or returns by persons engaged in the collection of the information or the tabulation of the data.

The Act deals with collection of statistics relating to factories, such as production, etc., and matters dealing with labour welfare. The former have already been implemented by the various States and the Director of Industrial Statistics has undertaken censuses of production. Reports on the censuses for the years 1946 and 1947 have now been published. In regard to the clauses of the Act dealing with statistics relating to labour, these are being implemented.

Model draft rules called the Industrial Statistics (Labour) Rules have been framed by the Ministry of Labour and have been published by the State Governments for the information of all persons likely to be affected. The rules are to be enforced soon. The question of collecting statistics of industrial disputes under the Act is also under consideration and a set of draft rules called the Industrial Statistics (Industrial and Labour Disputes) Rules have been framed for the purpose

INDIA AND I. L. O.

As is well known, the International Labour Organisation owes its creation to the Treaty of Versailles. India joined this organisation at the very start and since 1922 has been one of the eight leading industrial countries in the world and as such has been allotted a permanent seat on the Governing Body of the Organisation. India also contributes liberally towards the finances of the Organisation. In 1950 India's contribution amounted to U.S. $272,250·43 which was about 4.55 per cent. of the total contribution of all member States. India's share in the appointments of the office is, however, somewhat inadequate. This is a matter which has been discussed from time to time and was also prominently raised in the recent session of the Asian Regional Labour Conference.

The International Labour Office and its various annual conferences have been a source of inspiration and guidance to India in the enactment of labour legislation and framing of labour policies. India has so far ratified 19 out of the 98 Conventions adopted by the International Labour Organisation but has in addition incorporated into its national legislation the essential features of many other Conventions. Since the International Labour Organisation is essentially a Tripartite Organisation, India's membership of it has resulted in the formation of powerful central organisations both of employers and of labour for purposes of representation, etc., at the conferences.

The last ten years have marked a new development in the policy of the International Labour Organisation, namely, the holding of Regional Labour Conferences of Member States. The first and second such Conferences were held in Santiago de Chile and Havana respectively in 1936 and 1939. The Philadelphia Conference of 1944 passed a resolution recommending that an Asian Regional Conference should be held at an early date. Accordingly, the Government of India invited the International Labour Organisation to hold the Preparatory Asian Regional Conference in India and the invitation was accepted. The session of the Conference in India started on the 27th of October 1947 and lasted for over a week. More than 200 delegates from various countries, including America and some of the European countries, were represented at the Conference.

The 110 Session of the Governing Body of the I.L.O. met in Mysore in January 1950, while the first Session of the Asian Regional Conference was held in January 1950 at Nuwara Eliya (Ceylon). The following were the items discussed at the first Asian Regional Conference :— Labour Inspection; Provision of Facilities for the Promotion of Workers' Welfare; The Development of the Co-operative Movement in Asia; Agricultural Wages and Incomes of Primary Producers; Organisation of Manpower with special reference to the Development of Employment Service and Training; and Report of the Director-General.

The 33rd Session of the International Labour Conference was held in June 1950 at which the Hon'ble Mr. Jagjiwan Ram, India's Labour Minister, was elected Chairman. The I.L.O. have constituted an Industrial Committee on Plantations the first meeting of which was held at Bendeong in Indonesia under the Chairmanship of Shri V. K. R. Menon, Secretary, Ministry of Labour, Government of India.

The following is a list of Conventions ratified by India :—

1. Hours of Work (Industry), 1919.
2. Night Work (Women), 1919.
3. Night Work (Young Persons), 1919.
4. Right of Association (Agriculture), 1921.
5. Weekly Rest (Industry), 1921.
6. Minimum Age, 1921.
7. Medical examination of Young Persons (Sea), 1921.
8. Workmen's Compensation (Occupational Diseases), 1925.
9. Equality of Treatment, 1925.
10. Inspection of Emigrants, 1926.
11. Seamen's Articles of Agreement, 1926.
12. Marking of Weight, 1929.
13. Night Work (Women) Revised, 1934.
14. Underground Work (Women), 1935.
15. Protection Against Accidents (Dockers) Convention, 1929, Revised in 1932.
16. Final Articles Revision Convention, 1946.
17. Labour Inspection, 1947.
18. Night Work (Women) (Revised), 1948.
19. Night Work of Young Persons (Industry) (Revised), 1948.

TRIPARTITE MACHINERY

A Plenary Conference of the representatives of workers, employers and Governments met on August 7, 1942 at New Delhi and decided that a collaborative machinery composed of the representatives of Governments, employers and workers in India should be established forthwith for the consideration of all questions relating to the conditions of labour.

It also decided that a Standing Labour Committee should be constituted.

The main function of the Standing Labour Committee is to consider and examine such questions as might be referred to it by the Plenary Conference or by the Central Government taking also into account suggestions made by State Governments, and representative organizations of Employers and Workers. Whereas the Plenary Conference is to meet at least once in every year, the Standing Labour Committee is to meet as often as it might be convened by the Central Government for the consideration of questions that may be before it.

In the light of the experience it was found that the subjects for the Conference or the Committee should be divided into (1) those dealing with general problems and (2) those covering all concrete questions relating to labour welfare and administration of labour laws. The former to be assigned to the Plenary Conference and the latter to be dealt with by a new body called the Labour Welfare Committee. The Standing Committee should cease to be a deliberative body and should act as the agent of the Conference.

Industrial Committees have been set up for important industries, such as plantations, cotton, cement, leather and coal.

The question of re-constituting the tripartite machinery was again placed on the agenda of the eighth Labour Conference held in April 1947. In view of the establishment of Industrial Committees, proposals were also made for the abolition of the Standing Committee but the workers' representatives were opposed to this change.

As there was imperative need after the advent of the Interim Government in September 1946 for a co-ordinated and uniform labour policy throughout the country, it was felt that the co-operation of the State Governments was necessary before giving final effect to Government's programme of amelioration of labour conditions. Separate conferences first with the Provincial Labour Ministers and then with the States Labour Ministers were, therefore, organised. Government's labour programme was discussed in detail at both these Conferences. This Conference was followed by a joint Conference of Provincial and States Labour Ministers. At the end of the year 1946 a special Conference of employers and workers was also held to consider the five-year programme.

Arising out of the adoption of the Industrial Truce Resolution in December 1947 at a conference of representatives of Government and of employers and employees, a Central Advisory Council has now been set up. A meeting of the Central Advisory Council was held at Lucknow on the 19th, 20th and 21st November 1948. The agenda for the meeting was as follows :—

Among other things the council appointed a Committee to enquire into and report on the question of fair wages to labour. This committee when it got down to work examined the principles underlying the concept of the minimum wage the living wage and the fair wage and came to the conclusion that the living wage represents a standard of living which provides not merely for a bare physical subsistence but for the maintenance of health and decency, a measure of frugal comfort and some insurance against the commoner misfortunes. The minimum wage must provide not merely for the bare sustenance of life but for the preservation of the efficiency of the worker by providing for some measure of education, medical requirements and amenities. While the lower limit of the 'fair' wage must obviously be the minimum wage the upper limit is set by the capacity of the industry to pay. Between these two limits the actual wage will depend on the productivity of labour, the prevailing rates of wages, the level of the national income and the place of the industry in the economy of the country.

The Central Advisory Council met again in July 1949 to consider the reports of the Profit Sharing Committee and the Committee on Fair Wages. While the Council could not arrive at any agreement in regard to Profit Sharing, the report of the Committee on Fair Wages was unanimously adopted and the Government of India subsequently introduced in Parliament on 10th August, 1950 a Fair Wages Bill to implement the recommendations of the Committee.

WAGES AND CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT

The last few years have witnessed an almost revolutionary change in the industrial wage structure of India. During the progress of the second world war Government in their desire to maintain the tempo of production and also to increase it to the maximum took timely action to ensure that production did not suffer as a result of industrial unrest. As will be seen from another section, Central and State Governments tried to avert strikes or to settle them by timely intervention. During the progress of the War, Industrial Tribunals were also appointed to adjudicate in disputes under Rule 81A of the Defence of India Rules. The awards of adjudicators and of Industrial Tribunals and Industrial Courts have resulted in great benefits to labour and, as stated already, almost a revolution has taken place in the wage structure of industrial labour in this country.

No serial statistics of wages and earnings are available in India except for those compiled under the Payment of Wages Act. The returns under the Act, however, relate only to persons in receipt of wages and salaries of Rs. 200 per month. However, these data are of considerable value in showing the trends of earnings of industrial workers and the following table contains the details :—

AVERAGE ANNUAL EARNINGS OF FACTORY EMPLOYEES

State	1939 Rs.	1948 Rs.	1949 Rs.
Ajmer	163·7	527·2	*
Assam	263·7	795·8	951·1
Bihar	415·5	1,065·0	1,125·6
Bombay	370·4	1,141·9	1,209·5
Madhya Pradesh	*	609·2	842·9
Delhi	309·4	1,047·3	1,070·5
Punjab	296·0	675·9	873·9
Madras	175·9	611·8	726·6
Orissa	161·8	612·6	524·5
U.P.	235·6	887·1	993·0
West Bengal ..	248·7	723·9	839·0

* Not available.

Note.—The averages for the years 1939 relate to the pre-partition states of Assam, Punjab and Bengal respectively.

RATES OF WAGES

Until the enforcement of the awards, etc., referred to above basic wages in many industries were abnormally low and in many cases the quantum of dearness allowance was four to five times the basic wage. This situation exists even today in certain centres and industries where wage regulation has not taken place as a result of awards of Industrial Tribunals, etc. However, as a consequence of the implementation of the recommendations of the Central Pay Commission by the Government of India and the enforcement of awards of Industrial Tribunals, a very large body of industrial workers in the country today are in possession of a basic wage which is very much higher than it used to be only a few years ago. The tabular statement below shows the basic wages and earnings of important categories of industrial workers in India.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE BASIC MINIMUM WAGE, DEARNESS ALLOWANCE AND THE MINIMUM MONTHLY EARNINGS OF WORKERS IN DIFFERENT INDUSTRIES (October, 1950).

Industry	Centre	Minimum basic wage	Minimum dearness allowance	Minimum monthly earnings
		Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Cotton	Bombay City	30 0 0	56 1 0	86 1 0
	Ahmedabad	28 0 6	76 2 3	104 2 9
	Sholapur	26 0 0	52 0 8	78 0 8
	West Bengal	20 2 5	30 0 0	50 2 5
	Madhya Pradesh ..	26 0 0	41 0 6	67 0 6
	Madras	26 0 0	42 12 0	68 12 0
Jute	West Bengal	26 0 0	32 8 0	58 8 0
Engineering	West Bengal	30 0 0	25 0 0	55 0 0
Dockyards	Bombay (1)	30 0 0	35 0 0	65 0 0
	(2)	26 0 0	56 1 0	82 1 0
	Calcutta	30 0 0	25 0 0	55 0 0
Coal Mines	West Bengal	13 0 0	19 8 0	32 8 0
Mica Mining	Bihar	11 6 0	17 1 0	28 7 6
Gold Mining	Mysore	21 2 0*	22 0 0	43 2 0

WAGES IN MINES

It will be remembered that in May 1947, as a result of the recommendations of the Board of Conciliation, which were implemented by Government substantial increases in wages were granted to workers in the coalfields. The Chief Inspector of Mines in his Annual Report publishes figures of average daily earnings during the month of December of certain categories of workers in different coalfields. The earnings of certain selected categories of workers in the important coalfields are given in the table below:

Average daily earnings during December of workers employed in Coal Mines

	1939	1947	1948	1949
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Jharia coalfields—				
Miners—underground	0 9 9	2 5 0	2 8 3	2 5 9
Loaders—underground	0 8 9	2 1 0	2 5 0	2 4 0
Skilled workers—surface	0 10 3	2 1 0	2 3 0	2 3 6
Unskilled workers—surface	0 5 0	1 7 9	1 9 0	1 9 9
Raniganj coalfields—				
Miners—underground	0 9 0	2 5 3	2 7 6	2 5 6
Loaders—underground	0 7 0	2 4 3	2 2 0	2 4 6
Skilled workers—surface	0 9 6	1 15 0	2 1 3	2 1 6
Unskilled workers—surface	0 6 3	1 8 9	1 10 6	1 11 3
Madhya Pradesh coalfields—				
Miners—underground	0 12 0	2 4 3	2 1 3	2 3 9
Loaders—underground	0 7 6	1 15 9	1 8 9	1 8 6
Skilled workers—surface	0 9 0	1 6 9	1 8 0	1 1 6
Unskilled workers—surface	0 6 9	1 0 0	1 1 9	1 1 9
Assam coalfields—				
Ministers—underground	1 0 6	2 6 0	2 13 9	2 8 6
Loaders—underground	1 0 3	1 14 6	2 4 6	2 6 3
Skilled workers—surface	0 14 0	1 13 0	2 2 3	2 0 3
Unskilled workers—surface	0 11 6	1 8 0	1 12 6	1 14 3

DEARNESS ALLOWANCE

Unlike many other countries in the world, industrial workers in India are being compensated for the rise in the cost of living by the grant of what is known as dearness allowance. During the year 1917, when the prices had increased the Bombay Millowners' Association granted a dearness allowance to their employees. Gradually the percentage of this allowance particularly in the cotton textile industry in Bombay State, was increased until it reached a level of 65 per cent in the case of spinners and 75 per cent in the case of weavers. With the coming in of the depression, however, such employers as had granted either wage increases or dearness allowances tried to reduce their Wage Bill, particularly by reducing the allowances. Consequently during the years 1933-34 there was almost a general tendency to reduce these allowances to a very considerable extent. This resulted in several industrial disputes, culminating in a general strike in Bombay City.

Soon after the declaration of hostilities during World War II, workers in certain industries, notably, those in the cotton textile industry in Bombay City began to clamour for the grant of a dearness allowance. A Board of Conciliation was appointed for this purpose in Bombay City. Thereafter, a similar demand was made by railway workers in the country and the Rau Court of Enquiry was appointed. In each case the demand of labour was accepted, though partially.

No definite principle has so far been evolved whereby a uniform percentage of dearness allowance could be fixed for the whole country at any given time. The scale of the allowance varies not only from centre to centre and industry to industry, but also, except where these matters are adjudicated upon, from unit to unit in the same industry at the same centre. The following tabular statement contains details for the principal industries regarding the dearness allowance paid:

Industry and Centre	Amount paid during October 1950
	Rs. a.
COTTON	
1. Bombay	56 1
2. Calcutta	30 0
3. Madras	42 12
4. Delhi	53 14
JUTE	
1. Calcutta	32 8
COAL-MINES	
1. Bihar and Bengal	
(a) Upto Rs. 30	—
(b) Rs. 31 to Rs. 50	45 0
(c) Rs. 51 to Rs. 100	50 0
(d) Rs. 101 to Rs. 300	67 0
2. Madhya Pradesh	
(a) Upto Rs. 30	11 4
(b) Rs. 31 to Rs. 100	30 0
(c) Rs. 101 to Rs. 300	66 10
3. Assam	
(a) Upto Rs. 30	13 0
(b) Rs. 31 to Rs. 50	33 12
(c) Rs. 51 to Rs. 100	37 8
(d) Rs. 101 to Rs. 300	50 0

In coal mines dearness allowance is paid on the basis of a percentage of basic wages. In Bihar and Bengal the dearness allowance is 150 per cent of basic wages for those earning up to Rs. 30 per month. The figures given indicate the minimum amounts payable for each wage group.

In the Engineering industry in West Bengal dearness allowance is graded according to income and ranges from Rs. 25 per month in the case of those getting basic wages up to Rs. 50 per month to Rs. 50 for those getting more than Rs. 200. In Bombay some concerns pay at a flat rate and others on a graded scale. Several Adjudicators have granted dearness allowance either at the Bombay Millowners' Association scale which was Rs. 56-1-0 in October 1950, or at a percentage, varying from 66⅔ per cent to 85 per cent, of that scale. In Madras the rate varies from 8 annas to Re. 1-9-6 per day and in a number of concerns it is paid at a flat rate of Rs. 25 per month. In the tanneries and leather goods industry dearness allowance paid is around Rs. 25 per month in West Bengal and Madras, about Rs. 30 in Bombay and between Rs. 40 and 60 in Kanpur.

The Committee on Fair Wages appointed by the Government of India examined the question of dearness allowance and came to the conclusion that for the lowest categories of employees the target should obviously be compensation to the extent of 100 per cent of the increase in the cost of living, but that in the case of higher categories a lower rate of compensation should apply and that the amount of compensation should be based on salary scales or slabs.

BONUS

As in the case of dearness allowance the practice in regard to the quantum of profit bonus varies from centre to centre and industry to industry. In Bombay City the workers received for the year 1949 a bonus equivalent to 1/5th of wages. In Kanpur a bonus amounting to four annas per Rupee of basic wages was paid for the year 1949. In the Madras and Madura cotton mills the system followed is to pay a bonus related to the dividend which is declared.

No bonus has so far been paid in the jute mill industry in West Bengal. The industrial Tribunal considered the question but deferred its recommendations in the matter pending the results of an investigation by experts and the Government of India. Two jute mills in Kanpur paid bonus at the rate of four annas and two annas eight pies per Rupee of earnings in 1949.

The dockyards in West Bengal generally pay an annual bonus amounting to a month's wages. Some of the dockyards in Bombay pay two months' wages as bonus.

The Tata Iron and Steel Co. at Jamshedpur pay a good attendance bonus amounting to 10 to 12 per cent of basic wages and a performance bonus of 10 to 50 per cent of basic wages is also given to workers. To the latter, however, only skilled and semi-skilled workers are entitled. Under the Company's revised Profit Sharing Scheme, the employees are entitled to a share of 27½ per cent of the annual net profit of the company and such share is credited to and/or distributed among the employees of the company in proportion to the basic salaries and wages earned or deemed to be earned by such employees respectively during the year in which such net profits were earned by the Company.

All the units under the management of the Associated Cement Companies paid for 1949 a profit bonus equivalent to two months' basic wages. The Andhra Cement Co., Vijayawada, paid a bonus equal to one month's earnings including dearness allowance.

In the paper mill industry the mills in Orissa and Mysore paid for the year 1949-50 bonus equal to one month's wages and ⅛th of total earnings respectively. The units in Hyderabad and Ahmedabad paid a month's wages for the years 1947-48 and 1948-49 respectively.

The Board of Conciliation appointed for the coal-mining industry recommended the grant of an annual bonus equal to four months' basic wages, split into two parts. An attendance

bonus of two months' basic wages to those fulfilling specified minimum attendance requirements, and a production bonus related to output and basic earnings and subject to their qualifying for it on the basis of a minimum attendance of 66 days per quarter in the case of surface workers and 54 days per quarter in the case of underground workers in the case of collieries in Bihar and West Bengal. Bonus on the above basis is also to be paid, according to the Fact-Finding Committee's recommendations subject to a minimum attendance of 60 and 65 days in a quarter in the case of underground and surface workers respectively in Madhya Pradesh, Hyderabad and Orissa collieries. In Assam, the existing rate of bonus has been raised by fifty per cent. so as to raise the amount of bonus earned to a sum equal to four months' wages per year.

From the latest information available it would appear that during the period April 1949 to March 1950 about 30 per cent. of the workers in West Bengal, about 45 per cent. in Bihar and about 40 per cent. in Madhya Pradesh qualified for the bonus. Information regarding the amount of bonus paid is available only in regard to about 33 per cent. of the Collieries. The amount disbursed by way of bonus in these Collieries was about Rs. 19,39,000 in West Bengal, Rs. 47,14,000 in Bihar and Rs. 11,26,000 in Madhya Pradesh.

In the Kolar Goldfields in Mysore, the attendance bonus of Rs. 1-8-0 paid to workers for regular attendance has been discontinued. The clothing allowance to underground workers which was Rs. 6 per annum before July 1947 now stands at Rs. 10. All workers were paid a profit bonus equal to three months' wages in 1947. In February, 1950 an award under the Mysore Labour Act granted 13 days' wages as bonus for 1948 to the workers of three mining but no bonus was granted to the workers in the fourth Company as its financial circumstances were unsatisfactory.

So far no bonus was being paid to plantation workers but quite recently bonus equivalent to 6¼ per cent and 4 per cent. on total cash earnings during the calendar year 1948 was paid to workers employed in plantations in Madras and Travancore respectively. During 1950, nearly 40,000 workers employed in some 212 estates in the different plantation districts in South India were paid annual bonus amounting to Rs. 2,96,800.

Incentive Bonus Scheme :—The Bombay Port Trust introduced on 1st January 1949 an incentive bonus scheme for dock labour and hydraulic crane men engaged on the work of loading and unloading in the Docks. The Scheme fixed the datum line tonnage (*i.e.*, minimum output required) and the peak line tonnage (*i.e.*, maximum efficiency) per gang of 13 labourers per shift of about 7 hours. Later the scheme was amended providing for adjustments of the datum lines on the 'per hour' basis. The incentive is that if the 'task time' is reduced owing to an accelerated output they would be paid a bonus representing cost of labour for the time saved plus an equivalent amount. The underlying principle is to guarantee to the worker the wage on the standard datum line and in addition to give him a piece wage commensurate with his efforts in achieving a higher output. The Scheme was later modified reducing the datum line tonnages by 6¼ per cent. and fixing the bonus at double the wage rate of a worker for every additional ton of output in excess of the datum line tonnage. The wage rate includes dearness, house rent and compensatory allowance.

PAY PERIODS

The period of wage payment varies from industry to industry and centre to centre and is mostly determined by tradition and custom. Allowing for minor differences in this respect and considering the major industries and the important centres it can be stated that in the jute industry in West Bengal and in the plantations the wages are generally paid weekly. The system of wage payment in the cotton textile industry in Bombay City and Sholapur is monthly. A peculiarity of Ahmedabad is that the wages are paid per *hapta* which varies from 14 to 16 days. The month is the accepted wage period for the railways. In some concerns wages are paid daily to certain types of workers, weekly to others, fortnightly to yet others and monthly generally to the clerical and supervisory staff. In the Tata Iron and Steel Company at Jamshedpur there are different periods of wage payment for different types of workers, *e.g.*, workers in Agrico are paid on weekly basis, in the main stores, W.P. Electrical Department, Traffic Scrap and Salvage, Pipeline, West Electrical Steel Foundry on a monthly basis. Generally casual labour is paid on a daily basis.

Mining labour is mostly paid on a weekly basis.

HOURS OF WORK

The existing restrictions on hours of work in factories and mines subject to the Indian Factories and Mines Acts have been described in the sections dealing with those Acts. The most important happening in regard to hours of work in factories was the reduction of the weekly hours of work for adults to 48. This reduction was effected because of two considerations: (1) it was felt that 9 hours of work in a factory per day was somewhat too long; and (2) the reduction of hours of work might lead to employment of more persons.

Actually, in many industries in this country during the war when three shifts were being worked, the hours of work were not in excess of 8 per day. In the coal-mines in Bihar and West Bengal the workers seldom work for more than five to six hours in the day or for more than four to five days in the week. According to a recent investigation the average weekly attendance of a coal-miner was 4·56 days. The cotton textile industry in almost all centres normally works a uniform 8-hour day. A recent development in the cotton textile industry is to work shifts on the basis of what is known as the Relay System. By this system a unit does not stop work during the noon recess and continues working throughout a whole shift, different batches of workers being given rest intervals by turns and the remainder being asked to do double substitute work for the time being.

In jute mills which are members of the Indian Jute Mills Association the hours of work are regulated according to the recommendation of the Association. On account of the difficulties of getting adequate raw jute, the jute mills in West Bengal were, from December 1949, working 42½ hours per week.

All the dockyards, many of the larger engineering and almost all the railway workshops work a 48-hour week but the daily hours vary according to the number of hours worked on a short Saturday. The hours in many of the mechanic shops of textile mills and in the larger non-engineering factories are usually half an hour to an hour less than those for process workers and approximately more closely to those in large engineering plants. Factories engaged in the production of metalware, however, work the full number of hours permissible under the Factories Act as also do oil and sugar mills.

In all cases where continuous production is necessary such as in electricity generating plants and certain water pumping stations, cement factories, etc., work is arranged on a system of three shifts—the different shifts changing over every week or fortnight. The change-over is so arranged that every workman gets a rest period of at least twenty-four continuous hours once in one week.

As far as railways are concerned, hours of work in railway workshops are controlled by the Indian Factories Act. Most of the larger running sheds have also recently been classified as factories and work in these large sheds is arranged on the basis of three shifts of 8 hours each. In the smaller sheds where work is of a fairly intermittent character, systems of two shifts of 12 hours each obtain but the work of the individual is so arranged as not to work each operative for more than 8 hours.

The question of shift working was settled by the recommendations of the Industrial Conditions Enquiry Committee on the Cotton Textile Industry in Bombay City and Bombay Suburban District appointed by the Government of Bombay in November 1946. It made the following recommendation on this question:

A third shift should be immediately introduced as a temporary measure which should be compulsory for all spinning mills and for all weaving mills for which the necessary labour force can be found. The hours should be as follows:—

First Shift	7 a.m. to 11 a.m. and 11.45 a.m. to 3.45 p.m.
Second Shift	3.45 p.m. to 7.45 p.m. and 8.30 p.m. to 12.30 midnight.
Third Shift	12.30 midnight to 3.30 a.m. and 4 a.m. to 7 a.m.

Workers in the third shift, although working only for 6 hours, should be paid as for eight hours. There should be a change-over between the three shifts which may be left to mutual agreement between the management and the workers, if possible; in the absence of any agreement, a fortnightly period is suggested for the change-over of shifts.

The question of hours of work of railway servants was one of the points submitted for adjudication to Mr. Justice Rajadhyaksha of the Bombay High Court who made the following recommendations:

The employment of railway servants under the Hours of Employment Regulations should be classified under anyone of the following heads:

(*i*) Intensive.
(*ii*) Continuous.
(*iii*) Essentially Intermittent.
(*iv*) Excluded.

(*i*) The statutory limit of weekly hours for persons whose employment is classified as intensive should be fixed at 75 hours a week on the average in a month;

(*ii*) The statutory maximum limit for the employment of continuous workers should be fixed at 54 a week on the average in a month;

(*iii*) The statutory maximum for staff classified as essentially intermittent should be 75 hours a week; and

(*iv*) For excluded workers no statutory minimum limit can be prescribed but this should not absolve the Administrations of their responsibility on humanitarian grounds, of seeing that unreasonable conditions are not imposed. The Government of India accepted these recommendations and by an Order dated 15th June 1948 declared them binding for a period of three years.

Speaking generally, in the dry docks and workshops attached to Ports two to three shifts of 8 hours each are worked. Only in the Madras Port is there a system of weekly change-over of shifts among dock workers. During the war, overtime was a regular feature in the major ports due to increased activities created by war conditions.

In the major municipalities the hours of work vary from department to department but are generally 8 to 10 per day. In the Water Works Department, the Pumping Station and Distribution Department in Madras, there is a regular system of change-over of shifts but such a system is not to be found in other municipalities. Speaking generally, municipal workers get a weekly holiday. Although those in the conservancy department get only half a day off per week, there is a certain amount of discontent among the conservancy staff for not getting a weekly holiday but since they are engaged on essential work most of the municipalities find it difficult to grant such a holiday.

COST OF LIVING

Bombay was the first State in India to complete and publish a price series intended for measuring changes in the cost of living.

Labour Statistics are still in their infancy in India but in respect of family budget enquiries and compilation of cost of living index numbers, considerable amount of work has been done by the States and Central Government in recent years as would be seen from the following paragraphs.

The Labour Office of the Government of Bombay conducted a comprehensive family budget inquiry in Bombay City between September 1932 and June 1933 and taking the weights based on the results of that inquiry it compiled a new cost of living index series on the price relative method with the average prices for the year ended June 1934 equated to 100. A full note on the method used in the compilation of this index number has been given at pages 370-72 of the issue of the *Labour Gazette* for January 1940.

In addition to the cost of living index series which the Labour Office of the Government of Bombay compiles for working classes in Bombay City, it also compiles similar cost of living index series for three other centres in the State of Bombay: (1) Ahmedabad; (2) Sholapur; and (3) Jalgaon. Those for Ahmedabad and Sholapur are published regularly in the *Labour Gazette* along with that for Bombay City. The average prices for the year ended July 1927 have been adopted as the basis for the Ahmedabad series while the one for Sholapur is based on the average prices for the year ended January 1928.

Other States in India which compile cost of living index series for working classes are Madras, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, and Bihar, the old undivided Punjab and Orissa. Mysore was the first Princely State to start the compilation of a Cost of Living Index for the City of Bangalore in 1942. The Mysore Government also publish now cost of living figures for Kolar Goldfields and Mysore. Among the other States which publish such figures are Travancore-Cochin and Hyderabad. These figures are reproduced regularly every month in the *Indian Labour Gazette* along with those for India.

The Government of Madras compiles nine series in all: one for Madras City with the average prices for the year ended June 1936 equated to 100 and eight other series for low paid employees at Visakhapatnam, Eluru, Bellary, Cuddalore, Coimbatore, Madura, Tiruchirapalli and Kozhikode with the average prices for the twelve months from July 1935 to June 1936 as base.

The Government of Madhya Pradesh compiles two series for Nagpur and Jabalpur with prices in January 1927 as base and six other series for Mofussil textile centres in the State. Since April 1942 the base period for the indexes for Nagpur and Jabalpur has been changed to August 1939.

In Uttar Pradesh, one series with August 1939 as the base is compiled for working classes in Kanpur and five other series with prices at 31st July 1939 equal to 100 are specially compiled for low paid Government employees at Lucknow, Banaras, Bareilly, Meerut and Gorakhpur.

The Government of Bihar compiles cost of living index numbers with the average prices for the five years ending December 1914 as the base for the following six centres in the State: Patna, Muzaffarpur, Monghyr, Jamshedpur, Jharia and Ranchi.

Average prices for five years are also the base for cost of living index for Ludhiana in the Punjab but the base period in the Punjab is the quinquennium ending December 1935.

The Government of Orissa compiles a cost of living series for its headquarters town of Cuttack on the same method and base as those adopted by the Government of Bihar and another with average prices during the year 1939-40 as base for Berhampur.

INDEX FIGURES

Owing to the variations in the method of compilation of these indices, they are not strictly comparable, but the table below shows the movement of cost of living index numbers in selected centres for the twelve months of the year 1950 :—

1950	BOMBAY				U.P.	Madhya Pradesh	Madras	TRAVANCORE-COCHIN		MYSORE			HYDERABAD
	Bombay*	Ahmedabad*	Sholapur*	Jalgaon*	Kanpur*	Nagpur*	Madras*	Ernakulam*	Trichur*	Bangalore†	Mysore†	Kolar Goldfields†	Hyderabad††
January	294	327	404	425	424	366	328	369	359	302	306	330	158
February	290	342	408	421	426	366	334	370	360	302	304	329	156
March	288	356	408	418	426	366	332	367	358	302	302	317	158
April	292	366	412	422	420	367	327	366	359	307	300	318	159
May	297	363	396	421	423	370	328	368	360	311	308	319	158
June	297	363	389	424	432	372	330	368	360	311	311	325	161
July	304	363	395	436	439	375	333	370	362	319	315	334	164
August	307	371	396	446	444	377	334	374	364	328	318	347	162
September	308	371	401	417	445	378	335	375	366	329	321	350	163
October	304	342	399	421	447	378	337	376	367	333	323	353	162
November	297	330	388	428	444	376	333	375	366	330	315	342	163
December	295	322	385	415	435	376	333	380	371	326	327	344	163

* Base : Shifted to August, 1939=100. † Base : Year ending June 1936=100. †† Base : Year ending July 1944=100.

The Royal Commission on Labour in India had commented on the unsatisfactory character of the cost of living index numbers published in India and the Rau Court of Enquiry were also greatly handicapped in their investigations owing to the paucity of reliable data in regard to the cost of living index numbers for industrial workers. The Government of India, therefore, in consultation with the State Governments, decided to launch upon an All-India Scheme for the preparation and maintenance of working class cost of living index numbers for selected centres in the country. This scheme was started in the year 1942 and was completed in 1946. Over 27,000 family budgets were collected in some 28 selected centres. The data collected in the course of this investigation have now been tabulated and the Reports for several of the centres have already been published.

The main object of these investigations was to obtain weights for compiling and maintaining cost of living index numbers on uniform lines. Accordingly, the Labour Bureau of the Government of India started publishing regularly in the Indian Labour Gazette on base 1944=100 cost of living index numbers for some 15 centres in India and the latest available figures for these centres on base 1944 are given below :—

1950	Delhi	Ajmer	Jamshedpur	Jharia	Dehri-on-Sone	Monghyr and Jamalpur	Cuttack	Berhampur	Gauhati	Silchar	Tinsukia	Ludhiana	Akola	Jabalpur	Kharagpur
January	130	166	135	160	162	188	158	147	122	123	114	160	156	143	134
February	130	174	134	162	172	186	161	147	122	129	116	161	155	143	133
March	130	169	132	168	172	182	160	150	122	136	118	162	157	151	136
April	129	167	134	169	173	181	159	151	122	140	116	162	154	153	136
May	131	169	136	170	171	182	160	151	124	151	113	162	155	151	137
June	133	165	137	175	173	185	162	152	126	145	114	162	158	152	139
July	136	168	141	188	183	203	163	158	128	147	113	165	165	155	140
August	136	168	159	209	192	201	164	171	128	157	113	169	167	154	141
September	134	168	162	207	196	202	168	174	128	162	112	168	166	151	131
October	134	172	157	215	216	206	168	175	131	160	111	168	168	155	141
November	133	167	156*	187*	218	211*	168	178	128	156	111	167	174	158	137
December	129	165	157*	177*	195	194*	166	186	127	145	111	170	167	168	136

* Provisional.

STANDARD OF LIVING

The Bombay Labour Office carried out two family budget enquiries for working classes in Bombay City, one in 1921-22 and the other in 1932-33 and the results were published in the years 1923 and 1935 respectively. As has already been mentioned, similar enquiries were also conducted in Ahmedabad and Sholapur cities and the results of both these enquiries were published in the year 1928. In Madras, the Director of Industries published in 1938 the results of an inquiry into the family budgets of industrial workers in organized and unorganized industries in Madras City conducted under the direction of the Commissioner of Labour. A number of family budgets were also collected at Kanpur in Uttar Pradesh and at Nagpur and Jabalpur in Madhya Pradesh with the object of compiling cost of living indices.

Reference has already been made in the section dealing with cost of living index numbers to the fact that the Government of India carried out extensive family budget surveys in selected centres in India. The results of these surveys with the exception of those at Kanpur and Calcutta have now been published. Separate reports on these surveys have been published for each centre and are available to the public. The statements below contain in a tabular form the main results of these surveys.

COMPOSITION OF THE FAMILY

Centre	Number of budgets	Number of persons per family	EARNERS				Total	DEPENDENTS				Total	Average number of dependents per family living away from the worker.	Total of Col. (3) and Col. (14)
			Adults		*Children*			*Adults*		*Children*				
			Men	Women	Boys	Girls		Men	Women	Boys	Girls			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
I. W. BENGAL—														
1. Calcutta ..	2,707	4·09	1·31	0·09	0·03	..	1·43	0·15	1·21	0·72	0·58	2·66	0·87	4·96
2. Howrah & Bally	1,435	4·83	1·41	0·16	0·06	..	1·63	0·18	1·25	0·97	0·80	3·20	0·80	5·63
3. Kharagpur ..	222	5·62	1·39	0·12	0·05	0·01	1·57	0·13	1·40	1·09	1·43	4·05	1·00	6·62
II. BOMBAY—														
1. Ahmedabad ..	1,820	4·33	1.38	0·16	0·02	..	1·56	0·14	1·15	0·78	0·70	2·77	0·48	4·81
2. Bombay ..	2,030	3·96	1·28	0·24	0·01	..	1·53	0·09	1·06	0·68	0·60	2·43	0·69	4·65
3. Jalgaon ..	338	5·58	1·35	0·28	0·03	..	1·66	0·30	1·49	1·02	1·11	3·92	0·07	5·65
4. Sholapur ..	778	5·39	1·44	0·39	0·01	0·01	1·85	0·23	1·23	1·05	1·03	3·54	0·14	5·53
III. BIHAR—														
1. Dehri-on-Sone..	231	6·07	1·43	0·15	0.05	0·01	1·64	0·35	1·58	1·26	1·24	4·43	1·20	7·27
2. Jamshedpur ..	691	4·42	1·22	0·09	0·02	..	1·33	0·10	1·18	0·95	0·86	3·09	2·94	7·36
3. Jharia	999	3·62	1·15	0·73	0·07	0·07	2·02	0·03	0·38	0·67	0·52	1·60	1·75	5·37
4. Monghyr & Jamalpur ..	578	6·80	1·46	0·06	0·05	..	1·57	0·25	1·89	1·60	1·49	5·23	0·11	6·91
IV. MADHYA PRADESH—														
1. Akola	315	5·08	1·32	0·44	0·07	0·01	1·84	0·13	1·08	1·05	0·98	3·24	0·06	5·14
2. Jabalpur ..	482	4·06	1·28	0·29	0·06	0·03	1·66	0·06	0·94	0·65	0·75	2·40	0·73	4·79
V. ORISSA—														
1. Berhampur ..	123	5·50	1·33	0·45	0·16	0·11	2·05	0·27	1·32	0·84	1·02	3·45	0·06	5·56
2. Cuttack ..	168	5·54	1·38	0·01	0·06	..	1·45	0·29	1·77	0·98	1·05	4·09	..	5·54
VI. PUNJAB—														
Ludhiana	213	4·56	1·21	0·07	0·05	0·01	1·34	0·19	1·20	0·95	0·88	3·22	0·08	4·64
VII. ASSAM—														
1. Gauhati ..	241	5·05	1·19	0·09	0·04	..	1·32	0·07	1·07	1·25	1·34	3·73	0·75	5·80
2. Silchar ..	386	5·91	1·36	0·03	0·01	..	1·40	0·25	1·41	1·65	1·20	4·51	0·07	5·98
3. Tinsukia ..	185	4·11	1·10	0·07	0·04	..	1·21	0·05	1·00	0·97	0·88	2·90	0·37	4·48
VIII. DELHI—														
Delhi	581	3·80	1·17	0·11	0·06	..	1·34	0·07	1·06	0·78	0·55	2·46	0·68	4·48
IX. AJMER—														
Ajmer	375	5·18	1·09	0·01	0·06	..	1·16	0·24	1·45	1·14	1·19	4·02	0·03	5·21

COMPOSITION OF THE FAMILY, THE AVERAGE MONTHLY INCOME AND EXPENDITURE AND THE ACTUAL AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF EXPENDITURE ON DIFFERENT IMPORTANT GROUPS

Centres	Average number of persons in the family	Average number of earners in the family	Average monthly income per family	Average monthly family expenditure on: Food — Actual	Food — Percentage	Fuel and Lighting — Actual	Fuel and Lighting — Percentage	House rent — Actual	House rent — Percentage	Clothing and Footwear — Actual	Clothing and Footwear — Percentage	Bedding & H. Requisites — Actual	Bedding & H. Requisites — Percentage	Miscellaneous — Actual	Miscellaneous — Percentage	Total family expenditure
			Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.
I. W. BENGAL—																
1. Calcutta ..	4·09	1·43	70 8 4	47 1 6	65·66	5 3 3	7·28	4 13 2	6·71	5 8 10	7·74	0 1 0	0·06	8 15 11	12·55	71 11 8
2. Howrah & Bally ..	4·83	1·63	80 4 6	59 13 11	71·49	6 6 8	7·68	4 12 5	5·72	5 5 5	6·39	0 9 1	0·67	6 12 1	8·05	83 11 7
3. Kharagpur.	5·62	1·57	120 5 8	68 12 7	69·18	5 13 8	5·89	3 5 4	3·35	10 2 8	10·23	0 6 4	0·40	10 14 5	10·95	99 7 0
II. BOMBAY—																
1. Ahmedabad	4·33	1·56	134 5 8	50 9 9	52·74	8 10 1	9·99	5 2 11	5·40	12 0 2	12·04	2 0 4	2·11	17 7 11	18·25	95 1 2
2. Bombay ..	3·96	1·53	97 2 3	44 15 2	51·96	5 12 8	10·16	6 3 9	7·20	10 2 2	11·72	0 6 10	0·50	15 15 5	18·46	86 8 0
3. Jalgaon ..	5·58	1·66	60 2 5	34 5 10	56·57	5 4 4	8·68	2 5 2	3·82	10 9 6	17·44	0 4 3	0·45	7 14 9	13·04	60 11 10
4. Sholapur ..	5·39	1·85	66 15 0	37 12 2	48·75	9 7 3	12·20	2 13 2	3·64	11 4 6	14·57	0 11 11	0·96	15 6 4	19·88	77 7 4
III. BIHAR—																
1. Dehri-on-Sone ..	6·07	1·64	59 6 0	38 12 10	69·62	2 9 0	4·59	1 1 5	1·96	6 8 10	11·75	1 3 6	2·19	5 8 2	9·89	55 11 9
2. Jamshedpur	4·42	1·33	92 13 3	44 11 2	65·76	3 11 0	5·43	3 3 0	4·69	6 13 6	10·07	0 3 11	0·36	9 4 11	13·69	67 15 6
3. Jharia ..	3·62	2·02	52 0 0	33 2 6	77·70	0 3 8	0·47	.. ..	..	2 12 11	6·56	0 4 2	0·63	6 4 0	14·64	42 11 3
4. Monghyr ..	6·80	1·57	78 5 1	51 9 0	69·75	4 2 4	5·61	1 4 3	1·71	7 9 5	10·27	1 2 2	1·54	8 3 6	11·12	73 14 8
IV. MADHYA PRADESH—																
1. Akola ..	5·08	1·84	60 3 3	34 0 8	58·61	4 3 5	7·25	1 3 3	2·07	7 8 1	12·93	0 10 0	1·08	10 7 11	18·06	58 1 4
2. Jabalpur ..	4·06	1·56	64 10 9	37 1 2	58·24	4 9 7	7·22	1 11 6	2·70	7 6 5	11·62	1 1 11	1·76	11 11 11	18·46	63 10 6
V. ORISSA—																
1. Berhampur.	5·50	2·05	59 12 8	48 10 6	62·42	5 13 4	7·48	2 9 0	3·28	7 15 5	10·22	0 14 6	1·17	12 0 5	15·43	77 15 2
2. Cuttack ..	5·54	1·45	43 8 0	39 10 5	67·15	5 3 9	8·86	1 12 0	2·97	4 1 0	6·88	0 15 7	1·64	7 6 0	12·50	59 0 9
VI. PUNJAB—																
Ludhiana ..	4·56	1·34	74 10 2	47 7 1	61·25	7 1 10	9·18	2 13 4	3·66	8 4 9	10·71	0 0 11	0·07	11 11 5	15·13	77 7 4
VII. ASSAM—																
1. Gauhati ..	5·05	1·32	96 3 8	50 3 2	63·36	6 13 7	8·64	3 8 10	4·48	2 13 4	3·58	2 1 2	2·61	13 11 7	17·33	79 3 8
2. Silchar ..	5·91	1·40	86 5 0	57 9 0	71·69	5 11 2	7·10	3 7 11	4·35	5 0 7	6·27	0 7 4	0·57	8 0 10	10·02	80 4 10
3. Tinsukia ..	4·11	1·21	83 14 5	44 1 5	68·65	4 11 7	7·35	2 1 4	3·24	4 9 11	7·19	1 4 9	2·02	7 6 9	11·55	64 3 9
VIII. DELHI— ..																
Delhi ..	3·80	1·34	66 4 11	36 15 2	60·98	5 5 8	8·84	3 13 7	6·35	5 8 6	9·13	1 15 9	3·27	6 14 10	11·43	60 9 6
IX. AJMER—																
Ajmer ..	5·18	1·16	62 12 8	38 4 6	63·74	4 14 7	8·17	1 12 7	2·97	4 11 11	7·90	0 4 8	0·50	10 0 8	16·72	60 0 11

For the first time we have also now available in this country family living studies for plantation workers. These were conducted in the year 1947 by the Government of India and the results of these surveys have been incorporated in two separate reports. The tabular statement below contains details regarding the main findings of these enquiries in the plantations in north, east and south India.

COMPOSITION OF THE FAMILY, AVERAGE WEEKLY INCOME AND EXPENDITURE OF THE FAMILY AND THE ACTUAL AND PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF EXPENDITURE ON DIFFERENT GROUPS.

Plantations	No. of budgets	Average number of persons in the family	Average number of wage earners in the family	Average weekly income per family	Average weekly family expenditure on										Total weekly family expenditure
					Food		Lighting		Clothing and footwear		Bedding and household requisites		Miscellaneous		
					Actual	Percentage	Actual	Percentage	Actual	Percentage	Actual	Percentage	Actual	Percentage	
				Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.
North India															
1. Surma Valley ..	200	4·57	2·29	11 3 7	8 8 8	77·07	0 2 9	1·55	0 12 3	6·90	0 2 0	1·13	1 7 8	13·35	11 1 4
2. Assam Valley ..	560	4·15	2·44	10 13 1	7 11 8	71·55	0 3 5	1·98	1 0 4	9·45	0 3 1	1·78	1 10 4	15·24	10 12 10
3. Bengal ..	297	4·16	2·52	13 5 2	9 8 4	77·42	0 4 1	2·08	0 14 11	7·58	0 2 6	1·27	1 6 11	11·65	12 4 9
South India															
1. Madras—Tea ..	274	3·80	2·41	11 13 1	8 10 5	73·79	0 2 7	1·38	0 15 0	7·99	0 4 1	2·18	1 11 6	14·66	11 11 7
2. Madras & Coorg —Coffee ..	122	3·40	2·38	8 12 1	6 2 3	71·24	0 2 0	1·45	0 13 0	9·43	0 4 2	3·02	1 4 6	14·86	8 9 11
3. Madras & Coorg —Rubber ..	15	2·86	1·40	8 15 4	7 8 5	78·11	0 2 11	1·88	0 11 4	7·34	0 1 10	1·17	1 1 9	11·50	9 10 3

Even prior to the integration of the Princely States in the Indian Union, there has been a tendency for the States to take action on labour matters similar to that taken by the Government of India. Accordingly, when the Government of India conducted their plantation surveys, some of the States notably Mysore, undertook a similar investigation in regard to workers employed in plantations in their territory. A report on this survey has been published.

Details of family budget enquiries conducted during 1950 are given in the following paragraphs:

Orissa.—An enquiry into family budgets of workers at Hirakud and Sambalpur was conducted by the Office of the Chief Engineer, Hirakud Dam Project. For purposes of the enquiry, a rapid general survey of about 700 families of workers in different localities was made and from this a random sample of 100 families was selected. The enquiry showed that, on an average, a family consisted of 4.69 persons or 3.89 equivalent adult males. The average income of the family was Rs. 77-5-11 of which over seventy-five per cent. was contributed by the head himself. Over ninety per cent. of the income was derived from regular employment. The average expenditure of the family was Rs. 77-8-8 per month. The average monthly expenditure on food was Rs. 43-14-6 while on miscellaneous items the expenditure was Rs. 10-10-1.

Vindhya Pradesh.— Family budget enquiries relating to Class IV Government Servants and ministerial staff in the salary group Rs. 25 to Rs. 300 p.m. were conducted during the year 1949-50. Brief summaries of the Reports based on these enquiries are given below:

The enquiry into the family budgets of ministerial Government servants in Rewa in the income group Rs. 25 to Rs. 300 was conducted during the year 1950 in the course of which 59 budgets were collected. The enquiry showed that, on an average a family consisted of 5.15 persons of whom 1.46 were earners. The average number of dependants living away from the family was 1.19. Of the 5.15 persons in the family, 2.32 were men, 1.58 women, 0.73 boys* and 0.52 girls*. The average monthly income of a family worked out to Rs. 114.49 or Rs. 22.23 *per capita*. The total expenditure of the family amounted to Rs. 119.88 per month. The following statement shows the actual and percentage expenditure of the family on various important groups:

	Expenditure	
	Actual	Percentage
	Rs.	Rs.
1. Food	62·33	51·99
2. Fuel and Lighting ..	9·50	7·93
3. House Rent and repairs	4·96	4·14
4. Clothing and Footwear	14·94	12·46
5. Household Requisites	4·14	3·45
6. Miscellaneous	24·01	20·03
	119·88	100·00

* Less than twelve years of age.

Of the 59 families, 15 or 25.42 per cent. reported that they were in debt.

An enquiry into the family budgets of peons employed in the Vindhya Pradesh Secretariat at Rewa was conducted during 1949. In all 160 family budgets were collected of which 4 were rejected. Over 55 per cent. of the budgets collected were for families in receipt of an income between Rs. 30 and Rs. 40 per month while 22 per cent. were for those with an income of Rs. 60 per month or more. The enquiry showed that, on an everage, a family consisted of 4.05 persons of whom 1.39 were men, 1.38 women, 0.78 boys and 0.50 girls. On an average, there were 0.38 dependents living away from the family. The average monthly income of a family, excluding the value of the uniforms provided to the peons, worked out to Rs. 47.07 of Rs. 11.62 *per capita*. The total expenditure of the family amounted to Rs. 46.82 per month thus leaving a small surplus of Rs. 0.25. The following statement shows the actual and percentage expenditure of the family on various important groups:

	Expenditure	
	Actual	Percentage
	Rs.	Rs.
1. Food	31·17	66·6
2. Fuel and Lighting ..	3·12	6·6
3. House Rent	1·48	3·2
4. Clothing and Footwear	2·88	6·2
5. Household Requisites .	0·09	0·2
6. Miscellaneous	8·08	17·2
	46·82	100·00

The results of a sample survey undertaken by the Ministry of Labour of the economic condition of landless labourers in the village of Dorwan, in Bihar in 1951, shows that an agricultural worker's family, consisting of 4·8 persons, earned an income averaging Rs. 444·4 per annum in 1949, as against an expenditure of Rs. 615·8.

Of this income over 84 per cent. was spent on food that provided a poor diet both in quality and quantity.

The average annual consumption of cereals and pulses per family was found to be 27·6 maunds.

The population of the village was 496, comprising 89 families, of which 82 were engaged in agriculture. Of these, 63 families were tenant cultivators on leased land. The other 19 families possessed no land and hired out their labour. Sixteen of these were attached, while the remaining three families supplied casual labour.

The average attached family was composed of 2·1 earners, 0·6 helpers and 2·1 dependents. The daily wage of a bread winner was Rs. 1-0-3 per attached worker and Rs. 1-11-6 per casual labourer, the rates for men and women being the same.

About Rs. 238 or 53 per cent. of the annual income of Rs. 444-4 was found to be earned over 151·5 days of work in the fields. Other occupations in the village were dairying, domestic service, building work and carrying palanquins.

Out of the 16 agricultural worker families, 13 were in debt to the extent of about Rs. 250.

RECRUITMENT

Until recently, recruitment of labour in almost all industrial undertakings with the possible exception of Railway workshops, was effected through the medium of a recruiting agent, a *Sardar*, a *Mukkadam*, a *Mistri* or a jobber. As a result, however, of the recommendations made on the subject by various committees—notably the Royal Commission on Labour in India and the Bombay Textile Labour Inquiry Committee which have condemned this method of recruitment owing to the abuses which have come to be associated with it—many of the larger and more progressive concerns have appointed Labour Officers who are directly responsible for all new recruitment. The old method is, however, still largely prevalent in the majority of the industrial concerns.

There are various forms in which a recruiting agent is remunerated. He may be a salaried employee with a commission for every recruit he brings in as in the mines and plantations, or he may receive a lump sum payment for each recruit or a gang of recruits, or he may be paid a recurring sum for each man he places in employment as long as that man continues in service. Whatever be the method by which an employer remunerates the recruiting agent, it is fairly well known that the agent keeps a continuous hold on the recruit he places in employment and extracts from him recurring sums of money while he continues in that employment under pain of losing his job.

The evils in connection with recruitment were most marked in the case of casual or substitute labour. The Millowners' Association, Bombay, have dealt with the problem by establishing what is known as the "Badli Control System." Daily casual vacancies are filled only from card holders and whenever there is a permanent vacancy it is filled from these card holders. The evil influence of the jobber is thus eliminated. The system has been highly commended by the Textile Labour Inquiry Committee and the Government of Bombay have recommended its adoption by all mills in the other centres of the cotton textile industry of the State. A recent development in this matter is the 'decasualization' scheme of the Government of Bombay which has been introduced in some of the textile centres.

In the jute mill industry during recent years, many of the mills have established what are known as Labour Bureaux one of whose functions is to recruit labour. The Industrial Tribunal appointed by the Government of Bengal have stated in their award that despite the establishment of Labour Bureaux a considerable amount of recruitment was being done by the supervisory staff and have recommended that each jute mill should have a Labour Bureau and that all recruitment should be done through such Bureaux.

In this connection mention might also be made of the Employment Exchange started by the Northern India Employers' Association in Kanpur. Some progressive cotton mills in the South have also opened special Labour offices through which only recruitment is made.

LABOUR OFFICERS

The Millowners' Association, Bombay conducts special classes for the training of Mill Labour Officers and actively supervises and controls the work done by all such Officers where they have been appointed through the Association. Following the example of the Millowners' Association, Bombay, the University of Calcutta, in co-operation with the Indian Jute Mills Association, has recently inaugurated a special course of social work for giving suitable training to Labour Welfare Officers engaged in jute mills. The course covers both theoretical training and intensive practical work in the field, *i.e.*, the jute mills themselves. The Indore Christian College has also recently started a course for the training of Labour Officers.

The Indian Jute Mills Association which has appointed a large number of Labour Officers, created a special post of a Senior Labour Officer in 1944.

TECHNICAL TRAINING

About the end of the year 1940, the Government of India instituted a Technical Training Scheme designed to provide for the intensive training of a large number of skilled technicians required for the technical branches of the Defence Services and for ordnance and munitions factories. When the scheme was first initiated the number of persons to be trained was fixed at 15,000. This was later increased to 44,600.

The number of technicians trained under the scheme and supplied to the Defence Services up to 31st October 1945 was 83,867. More than 100,000 trained men have passed through the Training Centres during the five years of the operation of the scheme. With the termination of the war, however, the recruitment of trainees under the Scheme ceased.

Meanwhile the Government of India appointed a Special Committee with N. R. Sarkar as Chairman to consider the question of the establishment of a high grade technological institute in India possibly on the lines of the M.T.T. to provide advanced instruction and training in technology to meet the demands of industry.

The Directorate-General of Resettlement and Employment set up by the Government of India in July 1945 also organised several training schemes, such as, technical and vocational training, apprenticeship and vocational training for ex-Servicemen, etc. In 1947 schemes for technical and vocational training for displaced persons were also taken up.

The training schemes for displaced persons came to an end in March 1950 except in U.P. The training schemes for ex-Servicemen finally closed on 31st July 1950. In place of these a training scheme for adult civilians was started with effect from March 1950. For the present, 10,000 seats have been sanctioned under this scheme.

There were 63 training institutes and centres at the end of September 1950 where 2,156 persons were undergoing training. Besides these, there were 369 more persons undergoing training as instructors and primary school teachers.

EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGES

When the National Service Labour Tribunals were established under the National Service (Technical Personnel) Ordinance, it was the intention that they should gradually assume the role of employment exchanges for technical personnel. This they had been doing but the statutory powers given to Tribunals to fix wages and terms of service and to compel an employer to give up an employee and an employee to take up employment in the national service have distinguished them from the voluntary employment exchanges commonly met with in other countries. The exacting needs of war made it necessary for the Tribunals to have these statutory powers and they served their purpose.

As the war progressed it was felt necessary to look ahead and to build up an employment organisation which would be in a position to deal with the registration and voluntary placement of the many skilled and semi-skilled workmen who would be thrown out of employment on the termination of hostilities. The Tribunals had gained much experience of the requirements of employers and the placement of labour and it was therefore decided to use these organisations in the first instance for the setting up of voluntary employment exchanges for skilled and semi-skilled personnel.

The Directorate-General of Resettlement and Employment was set up in July 1945 consequent on the Government of India's decision that the resettlement of ex-service personnel should be a civilian and not a military responsibility. The object of the organisation is the resettlement and employment in civil life of demobilised ex-servicemen and women and discharged war-workers. Recently the scope of the functions of the employment exchanges has been considerably widened and they are also looking after the resettlement of refugees and of industrial workers generally.

The organisation is in the charge of a Director-ate-General. There are three Directorates namely, (1) Directorate of Employment Exchanges, (2) Directorate of training, and (3) Directorate of Publicity. The country is divided into eight regions each under the administrative control of a Regional Director of Resettlement and Employment.

There are 65 Employment Exchanges, 56 District Employment Offices, 15 Employment Information Bureaux and 33 Sub-Offices functioning in the Country.

The Central Employment Exchange acts as an Inter-State Clearing House to balance the supply of and demand for labour within the various regions.

Many of the Regional and Sub-Regional Exchanges have been provided with station wagons for use as Mobile Exchanges. In some cases the Mobile Section have contributed as much as 50 per cent. of the work of an Exchange and have been used to meet the bulk demands of Railways, Armed Forces, Police, etc.

The following table contains particulars regarding registrations and placements by Employment Exchanges for the twelve months of the year 1950 :—

WORKING OF THE EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGES IN INDIA

1950	No. of exchanges at the end of the period	No. of registrations during the period	No. of applicants placed in employment during the period	No. of applicants on the live registers at the end of the period	No. of employers using the exchanges during the period	No. of vacancies notified during the period	No. of vacancies outstanding at the end of the period
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
January	55	71,475	19,328	269,091	3,912	24,738	27,960
February	54	76,471	20,312	265,295	4,256	24,494	20,788
March	54	87,072	24,976	265,962	4,991	35,193	24,047
April	54	91,897	23,837	281,972	5,233	34,938	29,482
May	64	108,921	29,434	305,003	5,940	39,735	31,484
June	64	109,934	29,850	322,958	5,948	36,901	27,911
July	64	121,017	29,393	345,395	6,919	34,900	24,388
August	65	119,682	29,021	365,732	6,135	34,858	23,432
September	65	101,585	29,377	347,944	6,313	34,802	23,396
October	66	92,835	27,302	338,311	5,523	34,006	25,269
November	66	114,139	34,554	333,628	5,879	43,078	27,570
December	67	115,830	33,809	330,743	5,739	41,664	28,189

ABSENTEEISM

One of the commoner complaints of Indian industrialists has been the high percentage of absenteeism and the large turnover in Indian factories, mines, etc. From the available information it is clear that the percentage of absenteeism in Indian industries and particularly in mines and plantations is very high. It amounts to about 10 to 15 per cent. in factories, and to about 25 to 30 per cent. in mines and plantations. The high percentage of absenteeism in mines is due largely to the fact that there is a periodical exodus of miners to their villages for purposes of cultivation. The high percentage of absenteeism in plantations can be attributed to the large amount of sickness which prevails, particularly in the tea plantations in Assam and West Bengal. It is noteworthy that in factories in which the conditions of work and wages are satisfactory and also where there is a system of granting leave with pay apart from the statutory holidays with pay, the incidence of absenteeism is not so high as is otherwise the case. The available statistical data on absenteeism in certain types of concerns for the years 1948, 1949 and the twelve months of 1950 are given in the tabular statement below:—

ABSENTEEISM IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES IN INDIA

(Percentage of man-shifts lost to man-shifts scheduled to work)

Month	Cotton Mill Industry							Woollen Industry	
	Bombay (*b*)	Ahmedabad (*b*)	Sholapur (*b*)	Madras (*a*)	Madura (*a*)	Coimbatore (*a*)	Kanpur (*d*)	Kanpur (*d*)	Dhariwal (*a*)
1948 Average	13·3	5·9	18·1	9·1	13·9	9·6	16·1	10·6	..
1949 Average	15·9	7·4	21·3	8·6	13·1	8·1	15·6	11·0	..
1950									
January	12·8	7·4	21·0	9·0	11·5	7·6	14·3	9·5	5·8
February	14·7	8·0	21·0	8·8	17·6	8·7	13·6	9·4	5·3
March	15·9	8·7	21·5	9·2	15·4	9·0	16·2	12·5	6·3
April	16·3	9·7	23·3	9·8	14·3	10·2	19·0	12·4	5·0
May	16·4	9·6	23·5	9·7	14·2	20·4	20·8	25·8	8·0
June	15·2	8·9	19·9	9·9	15·8	10·6	19·9	18·4	8·0
July	13·9	8·3	20·3	9·4	16·1	7·4	17·9	13·1	16·2
August	12·3	8·1	17·6	9·2	14·6	8·6	16·7	8·9	8·8
September	*	8·4	19·0	12·0	14·1	8·6	15·6	7·9	13·5
October	*	7·8	18·3	9·5	14·1	8·2	12·8	12·2	13·8
November	13·6	7·8	18·8	8·9	13·3	9·0	12·0	10·0	12·7
December	13·8	7·9	18·3	8·5	13·6	8·4	12·6	10·1	18·7

Month	Engineering Industry		Telegraph Workshops	Tramway Workshops	Iron and Steel Industry	Ordnance Factories	Cement Factories	Match Factories	Leather Industry
	Bombay (*b*)	West Bengal (*c*)	All India (*a*)	All India (*a*)	All India (*a*)	All India (*a*)	All India (*a*)	All India (*a*)	Kanpur (*d*)
1948 Average	13·4	..	..	..	14·3	8·5	10·9	10·9	8·0
1949 Average	13·6	..	..	..	13·5	8·0	10·1	10·8	11·3
1950									
January	11·9	8·9	7·1	19·3	12·2	7·5	9·6	7·3	4·9
February	12·9	9·4	7·7	12·0	11·4	8·1	9·7	10·7	5·7
March	15·1	14·7	9·1	16·7	14·0	11·0	11·3	13·3	6·7
April	16·3	16·2	8·8	23·7	14·1	13·2	11·4	15·5	8·4
May	18·9	15·5	10·8	17·2	15·2	11·8	16·5	14·9	10·7
June	14·0	12·3	9·6	13·4	14·4	9·4	12·8	12·1	7·5
July	12·0	9·3	7·9	14·4	12·2	7·7	8·6	10·3	15·5
August	10·1	12·7	6·5	11·9	11·8	6·9	10·2	10·1	21·0
September	11·1	..	6·2	12·2	10·5	8·3	8·7	9·0	4·2
October	10·0	..	6·4	20·1	10·6	7·2	10·3	9·6	5·9
November	11·5	..	7·5	13·7	11·6	7·4	9·0	9·6	4·8
December	11·8	..	7·3	13·9	10·5	7·7	9·0	9·0	5·2

Sources—(*a*) Government of India: Labour Bureau. (*b*) Government of Bombay: Deputy Commissioner of Labour (Information).
(*c*) Government of West Bengal: Commissioner of Labour. (*d*) Employers' Association of Northern India.
* There was a general strike in the Cotton Textile Industry in Bombay City.

Note.—The series relating to Bombay (columns 2, 3, 4, and 11) covered only the day shift till December 1948. The series now cover all shifts.

SOCIAL SECURITY

One of the resolutions unanimously passed at the Tripartite Labour Conference of 1943 asked for the setting up of machinery to investigate questions of wages and earnings, employment and housing and social conditions generally, and that as soon as possible after the receipt of the required statistics and other data the Central Government should appoint a mixed committee to formulate plans of social security.

In persuance of this resolution the Governor-General-in-Council appointed, early in 1944, a Committee of Enquiry to be known as the Labour Investigation Committee. The Committee made exhaustive fact-finding surveys in some 36 industries including major industries like cotton, jute, coal, etc.

In the year 1944 Prof. B. P. Adarkar's Report on Health Insurance for Industrial workers was published. The Government of India invited the International Labour Organisation to depute two experts to advise them on matters contained in Prof. Adarkar's Report. These two experts were Messrs. Stack and Rao of the I.L.O. After a certain amount of touring in the country and consultations with Prof. Adarkar and certain interests concerned, Messrs. Stack and Rao

suggested certain alterations to the findings of Prof. Adarkar. These were published by the Government of India.

A bill incorporating a health insurance scheme was introduced in November 1947 in the Dominion Parliament by the Hon'ble Mr. Jagjivan Ram.

The Bill became law on 19th April 1948. The Act is known as the Employees State Insurance Act and the following are its main provisions :

The Act applies to all factories including factories belonging to Government other than seasonal factories and covers employees in receipt of wages or salaries up to Rs. 400 per month. The administration of the Act is entrusted to an autonomous body called the Employees State Insurance Corporation. A Standing Committee is to act as the executive of the Corporation. There is also to be a Medical Benefit Council to advise the Corporation on matters relating to administration of medical benefit, certification etc. All these bodies are tripartite in character.

The scheme is contributory but the Central Government is to make an annual grant to the Corporation during the first five years of a sum equivalent to ⅓rds of the administrative expenses of the Corporation. The rates of contribution payable in respect of an employee have been fixed as follows :—

Group of employees	Employees' contribution (recoverable from employees)			Employers' contribution			Total contribution (employees' and employers' contribution)		
	Rs.	As.	Ps.	Rs.	As.	Ps.	Rs.	As.	Ps.
1. Employees whose average daily wages are below Re. 1	*Nil*			0	7	0	0	7	0
2. Employees whose average daily wages are Re. 1 and above but below Rs. 1-8-0	0	2	0	0	7	0	0	9	0
3. Employees whose average daily wages are Rs. 1-8-0 and above but below Rs. 2-0-0	0	4	0	0	8	0	0	12	0
4. Employees whose average daily wages are Rs. 2-0-0 and above but below Rs. 3-0-0	0	6	0	0	12	0	1	2	0
5. Employees whose average daily wages are Rs. 3-0-0 and above but below Rs. 4-0-0	0	8	0	1	0	0	1	8	0
6. Employees whose average daily wages are Rs. 4-0-0 and above but below Rs. 6-0-0	0	11	0	1	6	0	2	1	0
7. Employees whose average daily wages are Rs. 6-0-0 and above but below Rs. 8-0-0	0	15	0	1	14	0	2	13	0
8. Employees whose average daily wages are Rs. 8-0-0 and above	1	4	0	2	8	0	3	12	0

The insured persons are entitled to the following benefits :
(*i*) sickness benefit, (*ii*) maternity benefit, (*iii*) disablement benefit, (*iv*) dependents benefit and (*v*) medical benefit.

The implementation of the Act requires the setting up of an elaborate organisation and many details remained to be worked out. It was, therefore, decided to make the Act applicable as an experimental measure in certain selected centres only.

Dr. C. L. Katial has been appointed as the Director General of the Employees State Insurance Corporation.

HEALTH, SAFETY

Such statistics of health and mortality as are collected and published relate to the whole community and no statistics are compiled separately for industrial workers alone. In the absence of such data it is not possible to generalise about these matters.

The War witnessed a tremendous drive against the scourge of malaria especially in the coalfields of W. Bengal and Bihar. For a time the whole organisation for fighting malaria by the use of D. D. T. was taken over by the army and deaths from malaria went down to a considerable extent in a couple of years' time. The Welfare Fund as has been pointed out, is also spending large amounts for fighting the scourge of malaria.

In the tea plantations of Assam and West Bengal the Indian Tea Association is spending large sums of money in order to reduce the incidence of malaria. Even so, in many of the industrial towns and in the tea plantations, there is still a considerable amount of illness resulting in absenteeism and loss of production.

Although there is not much evidence of the existence of occupational diseases notified under the Workmen's Compensation Act in the mining and factory industries of India, this may partly be due to the defective arrangements which exist for detecting such diseases. Silicosis on a considerable scale is, however, to be found in the gold mines in Kolar.

As in most things connected with the welfare of labour, the railways are in the forefront in the matter of the provision made for medical aid and relief. All railways maintain fully equipped hospitals with qualified surgeons, physicians and nursing staffs at suitable centres in addition to fully equipped dispensaries in charge of qualified medical officers at all places where there are sufficient numbers of workers to justify them.

The Government of India have provided adequate medical facilities in most of their own establishments such as Indian Naval Dockyard and the various Ordnance and Ammunition Factories. Several of the larger municipalities and public bodies such as the Port Trusts also maintain their own hospitals and dispensaries for the benefit of their workers.

All railways have undertaken extensive schemes of safety-first propaganda including the putting up of safety posters and safeguards both in English and in the Indian languages at all prominent points and places; the free issue of illustrated booklets on accident prevention; publication of special articles with photographs in railway magazines; addresses and magic-lantern lectures; and the organisation of special safety-first committees in the larger workshops.

The Millowners' Association, Bombay, has done a considerable amount of good work of a pioneering character in connection with Safety-first measures. Working in conjunction with the Safety-first Association of India, the Association drew up a Safety Code for the Cotton Textile Industry and this Code was published and put into operation from August 1940. It is of interest to note that most cotton mills in Ahmedabad had also established safety-first committees by the end of the year 1939. Factory Departments in all States do all they possibly can in improving safety measures in factories.

The Indian Factories Act requires the manager to report all accidents which cause death or bodily injury whereby the person injured is prevented from returning to his work in the factory during the 48 hours next after the occurrence of the accident. All classes of accidents namely, fatal, serious (*i.e.*, accidents which prevent a person returning to work for 21 days or more) and minor are to be reported to the Inspector of Factories and to the District Magistrate and in cases of any accident resulting in death to the officer in charge of the police station in addition.

It is the duty of the Inspector of Factories to make an investigation as soon as possible into the causes of and the responsibility for a fatal or serious accident, and to take steps for the prosecution of the person concerned if it is found that the death or serious injury resulted from any infringement of the provisions of the Act or of the rules framed under the Act. The Act also requires notice to be given of an accident which is due to any cause that has been notified in this behalf by a State Government, even though no injury may have resulted therefrom to any person.

The provisions contained in the Indian Mines Act with regard to the reporting of accidents are somewhat similar to those contained in the Factories Act but with the difference that every accident which occurs in a mine has to be recorded in a special register to be kept for the purpose.

Provision has been made for the training of miners in first-aid. There are also in the mining areas two rescue training centres where training has been given for fighting fires, etc. in coal mines.

In recent years the Government of India have been evincing a very great deal of interest in industrial safety. Sir Wilfrid Garrett, Chief Inspector of Factories in the United Kingdom, was officially invited to India to look into the many questions dealing with factory administration and industrial safety. A new office called the Office of the Chief Adviser, Factories was started and this office now issues from time to time valuable literature on the subject of industrial safety.

The Government of India propose shortly to open in Delhi an Industrial Safety, Health and Welfare Museum.

INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS

The table below shows the number of accidents in Indian factories and mines in the years 1939 to 1949 :—

	FACTORIES				MINES			
Year	Fatal	Serious	Minor	Total	Fatal	Serious	Minor	Total
1939	221	5,837	29,948	36,006	286	1,410	10,584	12,280
1940	236	6,857	33,986	41,079	315	1,442	12,880	14,637
1941	271	8,374	40,091	48,736	303	1,489	10,969	12,761
1942	323	9,111	44,740	54,174	342	1,484	10,871	12,697
1943	361	10,016	48,799	59,176	328	1,509	9,000	10,837
1944	348	10,638	56,336	67,322	365	1,568	8,946	10,879
1945	342	11,006	58,775	70,123	307	1,441	8,724	10,472
1946*	252	8,423	48,460	57,135	328	1,275	9,312	10,915
1947†	214	8,675	49,892	58,781	263	1,450	8,137	9,850
1948†	259	9,132	58,673	68,064	272	1,295	8,518	10,085
1949†@	194	6,513	46,902	53,609	271	1,558	16,529	18,358

* Excluding the Punjab and the N.W.F.P. in the case of factories.
† The figures relate to 12 States of the Indian Union, formerly known as Provinces whereas the previous figures relate to the pre-partition British India.
@ Excluding Punjab and West Bengal in the case of factories.

WELFARE ACTIVITIES

The Reports of the Labour Investigation Committee on labour conditions in 36 industries as also their Main Report as well as the issues of the Indian Labour Year Book published by the Labour Bureau of the Government of India contain detailed and comprehensive information regarding labour welfare undertaken in various States and industries. The following paragraphs briefly refer to the more salient features of welfare work that is being done in the country.

Until recently the Government of India had not undertaken any activities to promote the welfare of industrial labour employed in Central concerns. Recently, however, they have done a great deal in this respect. Reference has already been made to the institution of the Coal Mines and Mica Mines Labour Welfare Fund. Proposals for levying a cess to create a welfare fund for tea plantations is also under consideration. The Central Government have issued directives to all employing departments to constitute Labour Welfare Funds in all Government undertakings. The Fund is to be utilised for providing indoor and outdoor recreation, reading rooms, etc., to workmen employed in the undertakings. The Fund will be financed partly by Government grants.

The State Governments have also given up their policy of *laissez faire* in regard to welfare work. The first big step in this direction was taken during the regime of the Congress Ministries during the years 1937-39 when the Bombay Government instituted a large Welfare Department and undertook welfare activities themselves for all industrial workers in the principal industrial towns in Bombay. During wartime the Bombay Government and U. P. Government have directly embarked on a policy of providing welfare measures and West Bengal followed suit.

Welfare work is now directly undertaken by the Government of Bihar, Hyderabad, Madhya Bharat, Mysore, Saurashtra and Travancore-Cochin.

HOUSING

In the past the policy of Government as well as of industrial employers was to leave the matter of housing more or less in the hands of private enterprise. Only where accommodation provided by private enterprise was not available or where it was inadequate did employers step in and build houses for their employees. Even then housing of the employees was not given the importance it deserved and construction of houses was undertaken only when funds were available. In industries situated in out of the way places where private houses were not normally available as in mines and plantations the employers had perforce to provide some sort of living accommodation for their employees. The rapid growth in industrial employment made the housing problem serious and the influx of large numbers of workers to urban centres during the war further aggravated the situation.

The subject of industrial housing was thoroughly discussed at the seventh meeting of the Standing Labour Committee in August 1945 and a sub-committee was appointed to report on various aspects of the problem of industrial housing. The Committee recommended certain minimum standards for workers' houses. Industrial housing figured in the Industrial Truce Resolution adopted in December 1947. In April 1948 the Government of India announced as part of their industrial policy a scheme for the construction of a million workers' houses to be completed within a period of ten years but on account of financial stringency much headway could not be made in the furtherance of the scheme. At present the subject of industrial housing is engaging the attention of the National Planning Commission.

The subject of industrial housing has also been engaging the attention of several State Governments in recent years. The Governments of Bihar, Bombay, Madhya Pradesh, Punjab, U.P., Madhya Bharat, Mysore, Travancore-Cochin, have in hand schemes of industrial housing and some of the States, as for instance Bombay, have made substantial progress in regard to the construction of new houses.

As regards housing accommodation provided by employers, the standards vary widely. In the cotton mill industry only a small proportion of the workers are provided with houses. Some of the notable cases where good types of houses are provided for cotton mill workers are the Empress Mills, Nagpur, the Jiyajee Rao Cotton Mills, Gwalior, the Binny Mills at Madras and Bangalore and the Madura Mills. The jute mills in and around Calcutta have provided housing for about a third of their workers but the standards of housing provided leave much to be desired. In the engineering industry only the larger units generally provide housing for their employees. The Tata Iron and Steel Co. for instance, have provided 11,900 houses at Jamshedpur. In the dockyards, ports, paper mills, leather goods factories, etc. only the larger units of the industry generally provide houses and that too only to a small portion of their employees. The cement industry in India is much ahead of other factory industries in regard to the proportion of workers housed as well as the standards of housing provided.

In the coal mines up to 80 per cent. of the workers are housed in dhowrahs free rent. The housing scheme of the Coal Mines Labour Welfare Fund constituted by the Government of India envisages the building of 50,000 houses for coal miners and already over 1,500 houses have been completed. The mining companies in the Kolar Gold Field in Mysore have provided over 12,000 houses for their employers.

In the plantations nearly all the settled labour force have been provided with housing but the scale and standard of houses provided are far from adequate. However, in recent years the industry has become keenly alive to the urgency of the problem and at a recent Tripartite Conference the planting interests have agreed to replace the existing sub-standard houses by stages spread over 12 years. The members of the Indian Tea Association have already completed about 10,000 new houses in Assam.

The Government Railways have provided more than 2,00,000 units of residential quarters for their employees. Over 9,000 new quarters were built by the railways during 1949-50.

SHELTERS, CANTEENS

Section 47 of the Factories Act, 1948 makes it obligatory for all factories employing more than 150 workers to provide adequate shelters and a suitable lunch room for the use of workers during periods of rest. Almost all large industrial establishments had provided tiffin rooms & rest shelters for their workmen. Most concerns had also permitted the establishment of tea stalls on the premises but apart from this, little effort had been made to run co-operative canteens on the lines of those which are associated with most of the large factories in the West.

About the middle of the year 1943 the Government of India recommended to all employers, through the Employers' Federation of India and the All-India Organisation of Industrial Employers, the opening up of more canteens for workers. In October 1943, the Central Board of Revenue issued instructions to all Income-Tax authorities stating that any loss incurred by employers in running canteens for workers should be allowed as a revenue loss in assessing income and excess profits tax while cost of building and equipment of canteens would be chargeable as capital expenditure. Some progress was made though not very much. Till 1945 there were only 37 canteens in Uttar Pradesh, 130 in Bombay, 70 in Madras and 133 in the Bengal area.

Pioneer work in this direction was done by Messrs. E. D. Sassoon & Co. in Bombay. This Company had established large canteens in all their mills. The management in each case bore the salaries of staff and the on-cost for equipment; and hot meals were supplied to the workmen at actual cost. The Company had also established a hostel for boarding and lodging its poor women workers.

The Tata Iron and Steel Company maintain a number of restaurants inside their works at Jamshedpur which ensure wholesome meals and refreshments to the workmen at cost price. A Women's Rest House has also been provided where women employees can wash and change and leave their babies to be looked after in their absence, these babies being served with milk and biscuits free of charge.

The Indian Tea Market Expansion Board which maintains four working centres in India at Bombay, Calcutta, Madras, and Kanpur organises new canteens in industrial establishments. It has a large trained staff for this purpose.

The war witnessed a very large expansion in the provision of canteens in Indian industry from north to south.

The Act of 1948 also provides for the setting up of creches in factories that employ more than 50 women.

Trade Unions.—Except for the Ahmedabad Textile Labour Association, the Railwaymen's Unions, and the Mazdoor Sabha of Kanpur labour unions have not done much by way of labour welfare. This has been due largely to lack of funds. Some of the Railwaymen's Unions have organised co-operative societies, and various kinds of funds for the provision of specific benefits, such as, legal defence, death and retirement benefits, unemployment and sickness benefits and life insurance, etc.

States.—In 1939, the Bombay Government first organised model welfare centres. The expenditure sanctioned in that year was Rs. 1,20,000 but it has gone up to nearly 11 lakhs during 1949-50. In all, there are now 50 centres classified under four classes—'A', 'B', 'C' and 'D'. At Bombay there and 3 'A' class, 13 'C' Class and 2 'D'. class centres, located in various parts of the city; at Ahmedabad, 1 'A' class and 7 'C' class; at Sholapur there are 1 'A' class and 8 'C' class centres; at Khandesh there are 2 'B' class and 4 'C' class centres. and at Hubli 1 'B' class and 1 'C' class centre. There is one 'B' class centre each at Poona, Gadag, Barsi, Viramgaum, Broach, Surat and Nadiad. 'A' class centres have a full-time nursery school for children; a women's section providing literacy, sewing and embroidery classes and suitable games; outdoor games and gymnasium with all facilities for men; and separate arrangements for water-taps and shower baths for both men and women. Static as well as circulating libraries are attached to these centres; radio sets are provided; monthly cinema shows are arranged; and well-equipped dispensaries are attached. 'B' class centres are intended to be a replica of 'A' class centres but on a very much smaller scale. 'C' class centres provide indoor recreation and educational facilities, static and circulating libraries and dispensaries. 'D' class centres provide only outdoor recreation, such as games and sports. The centres have been very popular and the response from workers has been quite encouraging.

Welfare centres have also been opened in Bihar (2), in U.P. (33), in West Bengal (18), Mysore (2), Saurashtra (15) and Travancore-Cochin (3).

MEDICAL FACILITIES

Medical facilities provided by employers range from first-aid posts and dispensaries to first-class hospitals. In many of the factories there are not enough drugs and appliances, nor a qualified full-time medical man appointed. Some factories employ a part-time doctor who visits the factory premises once or twice a fortnight, or more often, just for an hour or so. Sometimes factories arrange to send their workers to private practitioners under an agreement. There are some examples, however, in which first rate medical facilities are

provided. For example the Tata Iron and Steel Co. maintain a large well-equipped hospital with 400 beds, and also 8 outdoor dispensaries. Recently a Dental Clinic, an Ear, Nose and Throat Department and a Tuberculosis Clinic have also been opened. The Delhi Cloth Mills maintain a hospital which is fully equipped with X-ray apparatus and other modern appliances, and which gives free medical aid to both mill workers and their families and free food to indoor patients. The hospital at the Kolar Goldfield is a model of its kind. The Buckingham and Carnatic Mills of Madras and the three important groups of employers of the Assam Oil Co. at Digboi and many other employers have also provided adequate medical facilities. In all Class I railways in India there are medical departments under the control of chief medical and health officers with divisional medical officers seconded by a number of assistants.

Although the Factories Act requires that provision should be made for washing especially in factories where workers come into contact with injurious or obnoxious substances, very little effective provision exists in this regard because most factories only provide water for washing but not soaps, soda, towels, etc. As for bathing facilities, extremely few employers provide this amenity. Section 42 of the Factories Act 1948 provides for the maintenance of such facilities in every factory.

Other types of welfare work done by factories relate to the provision of recreational facilities, amenities for the education of workers and their children, the provision of cost price grain shops, the establishment of co-operative societies, etc.

The Tata Iron and Steel Co. provide a network of primary and secondary schools, gymnasiums, clubs with facilities, for indoor and outdoor games, canteens, creches, co-operative stores, etc. The Delhi Cloth and General Mills have constituted an Employees' Benefit Fund to finance welfare measures, which include Gratuities, Pensions, Provident Fund, Sickness, Insurance, educational facilities for workers' children, night schools for adults, a vocational school, libraries and reading rooms, hospitals, gymnasiums, creches, sports clubs, swimming pools, dramatic clubs, theatres, facilities for excursion, canteens, messes and grainshops. The Buckingham and Carnatic Mills of Madras have an excellent system of welfare work, including schools, mess rooms, a co-operative society, workmen's stores, an ambulance corps, athletic associations, etc. The British India Corporation of Kanpur provide schools for boys and girls, sports, dispensaries, maternity and child welfare centres, club-rooms, a hospital, a widows' home, etc. The Begg Sutherland Group of Mills, Kanpur, has provided schools for adults and children, play-grounds, indoor and outdoor games, radio and well-equipped creches. The J. K. Industries of Kanpur, have created a Trust with Rs. 3,00,000 for providing several schools, a swimming pool and other amenities for their workmen. The Empress Mills of Nagpur have provided 4 well-equipped dispensaries, a central primary school, Kindergarten classes, a co-operative society, a sickness benefit fund, a pensions scheme, etc. The Madura Mills provide a well-equipped dispensary, a co-operative store, a thrift society, a workers' saving fund, a child welfare centre and creches, and a tea canteen. They have also contributed a sum of Rs. 2,62,000 up to the end of 1948 for operating an association called "The Madura Labour Union Welfare Association", to which they are also paying a monthly contribution of Rs. 5,000. The association conducts schools for adults and children, indoor and outdoor games, a reading room and a library. The four mining companies of the Kolar Gold Field have constituted a Central Welfare Committee to co-ordinate all welfare work, which includes the provision of a large hospital and five maternity homes, schools, sports clubs, cinema shows, dramatic performances, etc. The Dalmia Cement Company of Dalmianagar in Bihar, have provided a well-equipped hospital with female and maternity wards, a high school, a reading room and a library and facilities for indoor and outdoor games.

On Class I railways there are educational facilities to the children of the employees mostly free of charge. Staff Benefit Funds have also been created by certain railway companies which give monetary help to the children and widows of the deceased employees. On plantations, likewise, attention has been devoted to welfare activities. The Tata Oil Company at Tatapuram near Ernakulam in Travancore-Cochin has introduced, numerous welfare measures including a co-operative society, medical aid, gymnasium facilities and sports, a canteen, a literacy class and a *kala-samiti* to encourage the histrionic art and music. The list can be extended but this is enough to give an idea of the work being done by employers.

COAL MINES WELFARE FUND

The setting up of a fund for welfare work among miners deserves a separate note. In 1944 the Government of India promulgated the Coal Mines Labour Welfare Fund Ordinance under the powers conferred on it by Section 72 of the Government of India Act of 1935. This Ordinance was replaced by the Coal Mines Labour Welfare Fund Act of 1947 which places the Fund on a permanent footing. The principal objects for which this fund is to be utilised are defined in the Act. These are: (1) the improvement of standards of living including housing and nutrition, the amelioration of social conditions and the provision of recreational facilities for the benefit of the labour employed in the coal mining industry; (2) the provision of transport to and from work; (3) the improvement of educational facilities; (4) the provision of improvement of supplies of water; and (5) the improvement of public health and sanitation, the prevention of disease, the provision of medical facilities and the improvement of existing medical facilities. The Act makes provision for the appointment of an Advisory Committee consisting of Government Officers and an equal number of members representing colliery owners and workers employed in the coal mining industry of whom one has to be a woman.

The Act also contemplates the appointment of Welfare Administrators, Inspectors and other officers to supervise or carry out the activities financed by the fund. The functions of the Advisory Committee are to advise the Central Government on all matters which the Act requires Government to consult it and on any other matters arising out of the administration of the Act and the fund. Both the cost of administration of the fund and the salaries and allowances of the officers appointed in connection therewith are to be defrayed from the fund itself.

At present a cess of six annas per ton of coal or coke has been levied for being credited to the welfare fund. The principal activities of the fund which are financed out of this cess may be considered under the following heads:—

(*i*) Housing
(*ii*) Hospitals
(*iii*) Prevention of disease
(*iv*) Water supply
(*v*) Pit-head baths and creches and others.

The cess is now being apportioned between the Housing Account and the General Welfare Account of the fund in the ratio 2:1. A Coal Mines Labour Housing Board consisting of eight members has been set up. For the coalfields in Madhya Bharat a separate Housing Sub-Committee has also been appointed. The proposal is to build 50,000 houses for the miners: 31,000 in Bihar, 15,500 in West Bengal and 3,500 in Madhya Pradesh. Of these 1,500 are completed. Certain difficulties have been experienced in rapidly carrying out the programme and the progress made so far has, therefore, been somewhat slow. To speed it up a new scheme has been drawn up by Government. Under this scheme a subsidy of up to 50 per cent. of the cost of construction of houses built by colliery owners in accordance with the specifications prescribed by the Coal Mines Labour Welfare Fund will be paid by the Fund.

The fund gives certain grants and subsidies to various other funds such as the Leper Fund.

Special measures are being taken for the welfare of women and children and 20 women's welfare centres in the different coalfields have been started.

The regional hospitals and maternity child welfare centres at Katras and Tisra in the Jharia coalfield and Chora and Searosole in the Raniganj coalfield were opened. The work in regard to the central hospital for Jharia coalfield is in progress and plans and estimates for a Central Hospital for the Raniganj Coalfield have been prepared.

For the prevention of disease, grants are being made to the Mines Boards of Health and a scheme for the treatment of tuberculosis has been drawn up. Anti-malaria work is also in full progress.

The construction of pit-head baths and of creches has now been made compulsory. A few pit-head baths and creche buildings have been completed.

Mica Mines Labour Welfare Fund.—The Mica Mines Labour Welfare Fund Act, 1946, which was designed to constitute a similar fund for the benefit of mica workers, provides for the levy of an *ad valorem* duty not exceeding 6¼ per cent. on all mica exported from India. The Act provides also for the constitution of two Advisory Committees, one for Madras and one for Bihar.

The Committee appointed to look after the welfare of workers in mica mines has commenced work. It has decided to select suitable places in mica areas for sinking wells and for the construction of dispensaries. Certain beds are being reserved in the existing hospitals for mica workers. A scheme for starting 4 multi purpose Welfare Centres in Bihar has been sanctioned. In Madras three dispensaries have been started for use by mica miners and five radio sets have been installed in selected mica mining centres.

PENSIONS, GRATUITIES

The subjects which we deal with under this section are pensions, gratuities, profit sharing, provident funds, co-operative societies, grain and cloth shops, advances and loans.

All monthly and time-rated workmen in the industrial establishments of Government are entitled to pensions on retirement provided that a minimum of ten years' service has been put in. Outside Government concerns, pensions on retirement are almost non-existent although some concerns give small pensions to old employees who have put in long periods of trusted and faithful service but these are mostly *ex gratia* and cannot be claimed as of right.

All railway employees and the employees of local and public bodies and a few of the larger public companies receive gratuities on retirement. Gratuities are also paid to non-pensionable workers who have put in not less than thirty years' service in Government concerns.

In all cases specified periods of qualifying service have to be put in before gratuities can be earned. The rules of individual administrations vary widely but the most generally accepted principle is half a month's pay for each year of service limited to fifteen months' pay in all. Permanent Government servants who have put in less than ten years' active service are entitled to gratuity if they are compelled to retire on medical certificate.

A few large industrial establishments in India such as Messrs. Lever Bros. (India), Ltd. and others have started Retirement Benefit schemes where an account is opened for every individual

worker to which a fortnight's or 13 days' pay is credited every year: interest is allowed and the amount standing to a worker's credit is paid to him on retirement.

The Tata Iron and Steel Company has instituted a gratuity scheme under which every permanent employee who has put in 20 years' service and whose salary does not exceed Rs. 500 per month is eligible for gratuity equal to half a month's pay for every completed year of service subject to a maximum of 12 months' pay. In certain specified cases, employees with less than 20 years' service also become eligible for gratuity.

Provident funds are of two kinds: (1) contributory, and (2) non-contributory. The Provident Fund Rules of different State Governments in India are by no means uniform. The Government of Bombay, by a notification dated 20th March 1941, made it compulsory for all Government servants in receipt of a monthly income of Rs. 50 per month who joined Government service before that date or of Rs. 25 per month who joined after that date to subscribe to the Government Provident Fund. Pensionable Government servants can only join the non-contributory section of the Fund.

State Railways and Ordnance factories have their own rules. Whereas it is obligatory for most categories of permanent non-workshop railway staffs with monthly pay over specified limits to join the provident fund, workshop employees with monthly and daily rates over specified limits are permitted to exercise an option. Once the option to join has been exercised, no withdrawal is permitted.

Compulsory Schemes.—Compulsory contributory schemes are provided for all permanent workmen in the factories owned by certain public bodies such as the Bombay Port Trust; whilst both compulsory and optional non-contributory and contributory schemes obtain for permanent workmen in the factories owned by most municipalities. Most of the larger public utility companies and corporations such as the Tata electricity generating and distributing plants, the Bombay Electric Supply and Tramways Company, Ltd., and the Burma-Shell Corporation, to mention only a few of many, provide contributory schemes for the benefit of the majority of their workmen. Several others have schemes for their supervisory and clerical establishments but not for their workmen.

The most usual amount of deduction from pay is one-twelfth of the monthly pay but the amount contributed by employers varies from 50 per cent. to 100 per cent. of the amount put in by the employee.

All provident fund rules make provision for loans to subscribers from the balances standing at the credit of their accounts in respect of their own subscriptions, and for the compulsory repayment of these loans. Subscribers are entitled to withdraw their own subscriptions at any time on retirement or on relinquishing their posts but the payment of that share of a contributory provident fund account which represents the employer's subscriptions depends on the putting in of specified periods of qualifying service—periods which show considerable variation.

During the year in many cases submitted to Adjudicators and Boards of Conciliation, one of the demands of the workers has been that they should be entitled to a contributory provident fund. In several cases this main demand has been met by the Adjudicators. The notable example in this connection is that of coal mines in India in which, as a result of the recommendations of the Board of Conciliation appointed by the Government of India, workers in coal mines are now entitled to a contributory provident fund.

The Coal Mines Provident Fund and Bonus Schemes Act, 1948 received the assent of the Governor-General in September 1948. It empowers Government to frame a Provident Fund Scheme and a bonus scheme for employees in coal mines. Schemes for implementing the provisions of the Act have already been prepared and the schemes enforced.

The Board of Trustees contemplated in the scheme has been constituted. It consists of a Chairman and six members nominated by the Central Government and six representatives each of colliery employers and workers. Government have also appointed a Coal Mines Provident Fund Commissioner who is the Chief Executive Officer of the Fund. Up to the end of September, 1950 the total amount of contributions realised was about Rs. 160 lakhs.

PROFIT-SHARING, LOANS

Profit sharing in this country has mostly taken the form of payment of bonuses according to the profit making ability of a concern. The question of bonus has already been dealt with elsewhere. Reference has also been made to the recommendations of the Profit Sharing Committee.

The co-operative movement has made considerable progress in industrial establishment all over the country notably in the south during recent years. Almost all railway systems have co-operative banks and savings banks in addition to credit societies.

Speaking generally most industrial concerns do not grant loans to their workers except during periods of an acute shortage of labour when recruiting agents are empowered to liquidate debts in order to attract the required workers to join industry. But, all workers who subscribe to provident fund schemes in such concerns as have them or who are members of co-operative credit societies can secure loans on easy terms both as to interest and to repayment. A few concerns, however, have set apart special funds for the purpose. 'Advances'—applying the term to the small sums of money advanced against earned wages—on the other hand, are more widely prevalent. The Payment of Wages Act empowers State Governments to frame rules for the regulation of these advances but no interest on such advances is now permitted.

The system of giving advances is fairly common in the tea plantations of Assam and West Bengal. The average amount of advance, however, is nominal.

Under the Factories Act, 1948, the factory employees are entitled to a minimum of 10 days holidays with pay in the year. However the recent tendency for many units particularly in South India, has been to allow holidays with pay in excess of this limit. In many of the recent awards of Adjudicators, leave with pay up to 14 days has been awarded. It is noticed generally that in the south the provision of holidays with pay is much more generous than in Bombay or in the north.

Employees of the Central Government, including those working in railways, Government owned and managed factories and Government owned mines enjoy leave facilities to a much greater extent than do private employees.

THE TRADE UNION MOVEMENT

The earliest known trade unions were (1) the Bombay Millhands' Association; (2) the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants of India and Burma formed in 1897 by Anglo-Indians and Domiciled Europeans employed on railways, more as a friendly society than a combination for securing concessions; (3) a Printers' Union started in Calcutta in 1905; and (4) the Bombay Postal Union which was formed in 1907.

The Kamgar Hitwardhak Sabha, Bombay, which came into existence in 1910, was a body of social workers who were interested in questions connected with the general welfare of labour and was an association rather for the workers than of the workers. Apart from the cases cited, the trade union movement, as this is known in the West, did not begin in India till almost after the end of the first world war.

The decade following the end of that War witnessed rapid developments in the field of trade unionism. The second world war also gave a similar impetus to trade unionism as will be seen from a subsequent paragraph in this section.

Federations.—The pressing need for a co-ordination of the activities of the individual unions was recognised at a very early stage of the movement and both central and provincial federations were formed. A central organisation at the apex was also necessary because only such a body could make recommendations with regard to the personnel of the labour representation on Indian delegations to the Annual Sessions of the International Labour Conference. Thus, the All-India Trade Union Congress was formed in 1920 on a national basis. The Central Labour Board, Bombay, and the Bengal Trades Union Federation were formed in 1922. The All-India Railwaymen's Federation, co-ordinating all unions of railwaymen on an industrial basis, was formed in the same year and this was closely followed by the creation of both provincial and central federations of unions of postal and telegraph employees. The latter bodies received a very generous measure of recognition both from the Railway Board and the Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs in India. In the former case, half-yearly conferences are held between the representatives of the Railway Board and the Railwaymen's Federation and at these conferences all the more important questions connected with railway establishments are discussed and as great a measure as possible of agreed solutions are arrived at.

The Split.—The Communists made a successful attempt in 1929 either to capture or to break the All-India Trade Union Congress. They affiliated the Bombay Girni Kamgar Union with a membership of 54,000 and the G.I.P. Railway Workers' Union with a membership of 41,000 to that body during the year and with the assistance of the voting strength which these two unions together with some of their other unions gave them, they captured both the Congress and its Executive Committee at the Tenth Session of the Congress which was held in Nagpur in that year.

Resolutions were adopted favouring the affiliation of the Congress to international communist organisations and for the boycott of the Royal Commission on Indian Labour, the International Labour Conference and the Round Table Conferences on Indian Reforms.

Moderate trade unionists under the leadership of Mr. N. M. Joshi thereupon seceded from the Congress and formed a new organisation called the Indian Trades Union Federation. The All-India Railwaymen's Federation which was till then affiliated to the Trade Union Congress left that body in 1929 and remained outside till 1935.

At the eleventh session of the All-India Trade Union Congress held at Calcutta in July 1931, a further split occurred in its ranks and the extreme left wing under the leadership of Messrs. S. V. Deshpande and B. T. Randive broke away to form the All-India Red Trade Union Congress. By this time, however, trade unionism in the country was at a thoroughly low ebb and none of the three national organisations could by any manner or means make a claim to speak on behalf of Indian labour; but, as the Congress had already decided to boycott

the International Labour Conference, the Government of India accepted the Indian Trades Union Federation as the body competent to recommend delegates to the International Labour Conference.

With a view to bringing about unity in the ranks of Indian labour, a committee called the Trade Union Unity Committee was appointed at a representative conference held in Bombay on the 10th May 1931 under the auspices of the All-India Railwaymen's Federation. This Committee found that three different and distinct sections of labour were in existence in the country—(1) the Communist group; (2) the liberal group; and (3) the rest—and that the gulf which divided the Communists from the other sections was unbridgeable. The Committee, therefore, recommended a platform of unity for the remaining sections of labour. It was proposed to organise and unite all unions which accepted this 'platform of unity' under a new federation to be called the National Federation of Labour. At a joint meeting between the General Council of the Indian Trades Union Federation and the Provisional Committee of the National Federation of Labour held at Calcutta in April 1933, the two federations were amalgamated on the basis of the platform of unity as finally evolved by the Trade Union Unity Conference but subject to certain modifications and the new amalgamation was named the National Trades Union Federation.

Unity Attempts.—In 1935, the two sections of the All-India Trade Union Congress composed their differences and it was agreed that the parent body should be recognised as the central organisation of the working classes in the country. In the month of February of the same year an agreement was reached between the representatives of the All-India Trade Union Congress and the National Trades Union Federation by virtue of which a Joint Committee of the two organisations was to be formed with a view to exploring the possibilities of common action with the assistance of the affiliated unions of both. Another direction in which an effort towards common action on agreed matters was made was the agreement entered into between the National Federation of Labour and the All-India Congress Socialist Party for joint action on specific political and economic issues.

At the end of the year 1937, the National Trades Union Federation had a membership of 83,000 with 62 affiliated unions and the All-India Trade Union Congress had a membership of 46,000 with 98 affiliated unions. It is interesting, however, to note that the labour unions of Ahmedabad which draw their inspiration from Mahatma Gandhi have throughout remained aloof from both these bodies.

At a special joint session of the All-India Trade Union Congress and the National Trade Union Federation held at Nagpur on the 17th April 1938, it was decided to combine these two bodies into one central organisation. The Provisional Affiliation entered into at Nagpur in April 1938 was formally ratified at the Eighteenth Session of the All-India Trade Union Congress held at Bombay on the 28th and 29th September 1940.

Attitude to War.—This very same session, however, was responsible for yet another split in the Congress. The Session adopted a resolution of neutrality in connexion with the war effort but certain elements headed by Mr. Aftab Ali, President of the Seamen's Union at Calcutta desired to support the war effort. The Trade Union Congress while adhering to the principle of neutrality, however, gave a free hand to such of their affiliated members as desired to support the War Effort. This attitude of lukewarmness did not satisfy Mr. Aftab Ali and he disaffiliated his Union from the Congress.

Another section, headed by Mr. M. N. Roy and known as the Royists with Mr. Jamnadas M. Mehta, formed a new central organisation known as the Indian Federation of Labour with its head office at Delhi. Mr. Jamnadas M. Mehta was appointed its President and Mr. M. N. Roy its General Secretary. Two hundred trade Unions in the country with a total membership of over a quarter of a million affiliated themselves to the new Federation which carried on a country-wide campaign and propaganda for all-out support by Indian labour for the war effort.

The last few months of the year 1948 and the first few months of the year 1949 have been very eventful in the history of trade unionism in this country. Once again the Communists and the Moderates are split and the Communists have regained control of the Trade Union Congress. Several unions belonging to the Trade Union Congress have seceded from it and the Trade Union Congress is no longer the influential body that it was until recently.

Another development in the field of trade unions in India has been the establishment of what is known as the Indian National Trade Union Congress. The Ahmedabad Textile Labour Association has joined this organisation which generally follows the ideology of the Congress.

The Indian National Trade Union Congress is making progress but another development has been that the Socialists under the leadership of Mr. Jai Prakash Narain have now been taking active part in trade unionism and have become a vital force in the trade union movement. The federation of unions first organised by them was known as the Hind Mazdoor Panchayat.

In December 1948, representatives of the Hind Mazdoor Panchayat and the Indian Federation of Labour and several independent trade unionists met in a conference and formed a new all-India organisation, the Hind Mazdoor Sabha. Some of the trade unionists who had earlier seceded from the All-India Trade Union Congress formed another all-India organisation in May 1949, namely, the United Trades Union Congress. Thus, broadly speaking, there are three leading trades union bodies, the Indian National Trade Union Congress (ideology similar to that of the Indian National Congress), the Hind Mazdoor Sabha (Socialist) and the All-India Trade Union Congress (Communist).

STATISTICS OF TRADE UNIONS

One of the Annual Reports which the Government of India stopped publishing during the War and later revived is the one relating to the administration of the Indian Trade Unions Act. These reports contain statistics regarding the number of registered unions and their membership.

No State except Bombay has maintained any records for both registered and unregistered unions. The Labour Office of the Government of Bombay has collected full and complete information regarding all trade unions in the State of Bombay since the year 1922. The following Table shows the progress of the trade union movement in that State from 1939 to the first half of 1950 :—

Year	Average number of Unions during the year	Average Membership during the year
1939	170	159,026
1940	177	191,942
1941	174	184,517
1942	183	183,364
1943	214	221,029
1944	261	266,042
1945	295	321,582
1946	352	340,540
1947	494	446,803
1948	652	539,195
1949	763	656,242
1950*	947	748,434

* First half of year.

All-India Figures.—The Labour Bureau of the Government of India also publishes figures for Registered Trade Unions in the *Indian Labour Gazette*. The following tabular statements show the latest available position in regard to Registered Trade Unions :—

NUMBER AND MEMBERSHIP OF REGISTERED TRADE UNIONS IN EACH STATE FOR THE YEARS 1947-48 AND 1948-49.

States	No. of registered trade unions		No. of unions submitting returns		Membership of unions submitting returns	
	1947-48	1948-49	1947-48	1948-49	1947-48	1948-49
Ajmer-Merwara ..	11	16	11	15	6,031	5,532
Assam	80	71	43	43	46,706	107,725
Bihar	238	315	104	141	123,137	148,234
Bombay	306	410	246	295	316,622	421,128
Coorg	..	21	..	1	..	320
Delhi	47	59	32	48	20,444	25,486
Madhya Pradesh ..	94	88	55	60	40,198	33,590
Madras	512	597	346	296	242,628*	150,180
Orissa	54	72	25	27	5,634	13,407
Punjab	7	8	7	8	760†	2,866
U. P.	282	359	209	292	127,682	138,403
West Bengal	926	1,049‡	483	534‡	418,906	438,883
Central Unions ..	109	105‡	67	88‡	314,181	474,353
Total ..	2,666	3,150	1,628	1,848	1,662,929	1,960,107

* Relates to 340 unions only.

† Relates to 5 unions only.

‡ The total number of registered unions (Central and States) in West Bengal was reported to be 1,086, out of which 751 submitted returns. Thirty-seven out of these 751 unions were Central unions. In the case of 515 unions, which failed to submit returns, the break-up into Central and States unions is not available.

The following table shows the number and membership of the Registered Trade Unions from which returns were received, classified according to industries :—

Industry	1947-48				1948-49			
	No. of unions submitting returns	Number of members at the end of the year			No. of unions submitting returns	Number of members at the end of the year		
		Men	Women	Total		Men	Women	Total
Railways (including workshops) and other transport (excluding tramways)	150	383,683	1,180	384,863	193	523,047	2,033	525,080
Tramways	6	17,634	52	17,686	8	18,722	48	18,774
Textiles	222	385,099	45,745	430,844	221	429,667	43,732	476,211
Printing Presses ..	63	25,670	67	25,737	71	28,335	107	30,367
Municipal	70	34,567	4,587	39,154	76	46,429	5,264	51,693
Seamen	9	64,616	..	64,616	11	50,735	2	50,737
Docks and Port Trusts	28	42,861	232	43,093	24	50,203	154	50,357
Agriculture	13	10,292	335	10,627	12	4,979	162	5,141
Engineering ..	192	97,201	1,132	98,333	195	77,988	969	78,971
Miscellaneous ..	862	499,007	48,969	547,976	1,037	601,405	66,884	672,776
Total ..	1,615*	1,560,630	102,299	1,662,929	1,848	1,831,514	119,355	1,960,107†

* Classification in respect of 13 unions (6 in Textiles, 2 in Docks and Port Trusts and 5 under Miscellaneous) is not known.

† Sex classification in respect of 9,238 members (2,812 in Textiles, 1,925 in Printing Press, 14 in Engineering and 4,487 under Miscellaneous) is not known.

LABOUR ADMINISTRATION

Apart from dealing with labour legislation and labour conditions and attempting and bringing about uniformity of standards in the different States the Ministry of Labour of the Government of India has recently undertaken additional responsibilities for the placement of civil and military demobilized personnel, refugees, etc. It has continued active co-operation with organized employers and labour organizations through the Tripartite Labour Conference and Standing Labour Committee.

Prior to the year 1920 there was little co-ordination between the Centre and the States in matters connected with Labour. The participation by India in the First Session of the International Labour Conference held at Washington in 1919 and the increasing interest taken by the Indian public in questions connected with labour made it necessary, however, both for the Government of India and the Governments of the more industrialised States not only to consider the question of the representation of labour in the Central and States legislatures but also to allocate to special departments or offices the administration of labour questions.

The Government of India established a Labour Bureau in the year 1920. The Bureau was however abolished in March 1923 on the recommendation of the Indian Retrenchment Committee. Since the War and the creation of the Tripartite Labour Conference the Ministry of Labour of the Government of India has considerably expanded its staff and it now deals with a much wider range of subjects than it did before the War.

Apart from the main Secretariat of the Ministry of Labour it has several attached and subordinate officers. The activities of some of these have been described in the relevant sections, such as Employment Exchanges and Resettlement, Miners' Welfare Fund, etc., but of some others are briefly given below.

Labour Bureau.—To meet the ever growing needs of Government, industry and labour for accurate and reliable information relating to labour conditions, labour legislation, etc., the Central Government established on 1st October 1946, a Labour Bureau with the following functions :—

(*a*) The collection of statistics relating to labour, etc.

(*b*) To maintain the cost of Living Index Numbers compiled under the Government of India's Scheme for the preparation of Cost of Living Index Numbers on uniform lines.

(*c*) To keep up-to-date the factual data relating to working conditions collected by the Labour Investigation Committee.

(*d*) To conduct research into specific problems with a view to furnishing data required for the formulation of policy.

(*e*) To edit the *Indian Labour Gazette*, and

(*f*) To edit a Labour Code of various Legislative enactments and the statutory rules made thereunder and a Year Book giving authoritative description of labour affairs in the country.

The Bureau has now been in existence for over four years. It has so far issued the following ten publications :—

1. "Elements of Industrial Well-Being" by Sir Wilfrid Garrett, formerly Chief Inspector of Factories, U.K.
2. "Problems of Indian Labour—A Symposium".
3. Report on an enquiry into the Cost and Standard of Living of Plantation workers in South India, by Director, Labour Bureau.
4. Report on an enquiry into the Cost and Standard of Living of Plantation Workers in Assam and Bengal by Mr. S. R. Deshpande, Director, Labour Bureau.
5. Working of the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, during 1946-47.
6. Working of the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, during 1947.
7. Working of the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, during 1947-48.
8. Working of the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, during 1948.
9. Industrial Awards in India—An Analysis.
10. Indian Labour Year Book, 1946, 1947-48 and 1948-49 issues.

One of the extensions of the activities of the Ministry of Labour has been in the field of the collection of necessary data for compiling cost of living index numbers for selected centres in India on uniform lines. Accordingly, an Officer styled Director, Cost of Living Index Scheme, was appointed in the year 1942 and he collected some 27,000 family budgets in about 28 selected centres in the country. On the basis of the data collected cost of living index numbers for 15 important industrial centres in India compiled on uniform scientific lines are being published every month in the *Indian Labour Gazette*.

Chief Labour Commissioner.—The Central Government, in the Ministry of Labour, have also appointed a Chief Labour Commissioner. This officer is in charge of industrial relations and conciliation, labour welfare, operation of labour laws, and maintenance of information regarding wage rates and conditions of work in Central undertakings. There are a number of deputies working under him known as Regional Commissioners. The Chief Commissioner of Labour and his deputies also intervene in disputes arising between Government and employees in the various central undertakings.

Chief Adviser of Factories.—In order to ensure uniformity in the administration of the Indian Factories Act and to improve conditions generally in Indian factories, the Government of India have appointed an officer designated the Chief Adviser of Factories. The first incumbent to the post was Sir Wilfrid Garrett, a distinguished officer of the Ministry of Labour in the United Kingdom. The Chief Adviser of Factories has a number of deputies, including deputies who attend to matters relating to the health of the workers and the sanitation and cleanliness of factories.

FORESTS

RESERVED Forests: 83,397 sq. miles; Protected Forests: 14,225 sq. miles; Unclassed Forests: 19,044 sq. miles; Total Forest area under Forest Department: 116,666 sq. miles.

Even in the earliest days of the British occupation the destruction of the forests in many parts of the country indicated the necessity for a strong forest policy, but, whether or not our early administrators realised the importance of the forests to the economic and physical welfare of the whole country, the fact remains that little or nothing was done to check uncontrolled destruction with its inevitable results in erosion and sterilisation of the fertility of the land.

The years between 1850 and 1857 witnessed the first beginnings of forest conservancy in Southern India. It was a Memorandum of the Government of India issued in 1855, arising as it chanced out of the annexation of the Province of Pegu in Burma which first laid down the outline of a permanent policy for forest conservancy in India. Exploration, demarcation and settlement, followed by efforts to introduce protection and some form of organised management, were long and laborious tasks, which are even yet not completed. Nevertheless, large tracts of forest were saved from ruin and were gradually brought under increasingly efficient management. It was in 1862 that the Government of India submitted to the British Secretary of State detailed proposals for the administration of forests as a public estate for the welfare of the country as a whole. With the appointment of Brandis (later Sir Dietrich Brandis) as the first Inspector-General of Forests in 1863 commenced the scientific management of India's forest estate. Whatever may have been the opinions held in the past in some quarters regarding restrictions imposed by forest policy, there can now no longer be any doubt regarding the very substantial benefits which have accrued to the country through the formation of an extensive forest estate and that in her forests India now possesses a property of great value.

TYPES OF FOREST

More than one tenth of the total area of the country is under the control of the Forest Departments. These areas are classified as reserved, protected or unclassed State forests. In the reserved forests rights of user in favour of individuals and the public are carefully recorded and limited at settlement while the boundaries are defined and demarcated; in the protected forests the record of rights is not so complete, the accrual of rights after settlement not being prohibited, and the boundaries are not always demarcated; while in the unclassed forests no systematic management is attempted, and as a rule the control amounts to nothing more than the collection of revenue until the areas are taken up for cultivation or are converted into reserved or protected forests. The total forest area of India and Pakistan under the control of the old Forest Department on 31st March, 1941, was 98,258 square miles or 11.4 of the total area. This was classed as follows: Reserved 72,936; Protected 6,772; Unclassed State 18,550.

Throughout this vast forest area, scattered over the length and breadth of the whole country from the Himalayan snows to Cape Comorin, and from the arid Rajasthan deserts to the eastern limits of the Assam hills, there is an infinite variety in the types of forest vegetation, depending on climate, topography, soil and other local factors. Vegetationally, the greater part of the country, including the Indo-Gangetic Plain, must be considered as in the tropics, but wherever there are mountains, such as the Nilgiris in the south, and the Himalayas and Assam-Burma hills in the north, subtropical, temperate and, in the north, alpine zones must be distinguished, each supporting its own forest types.

Next to the major altitudinal effects, rainfall is the most important factor in the determination of the nature of the forests, and within each of the main zones, tropical, subtropical, temperate and alpine, there can be distinguished wet, moist and dry forest types. In addition, various edaphic and seral types occur, dependent on local conditions, such as littoral (beach), tidal, fresh-water swamp, and riverain forests.

The following is a brief description of the main forest types :—

I.—TROPICAL FORESTS

1. Tropical Wet Evergreen Forests.—These are dense forests, with a large number of tree species all mixed together, but according to their heights forming several canopies or layers. The upper canopy trees, among which *Dipterocarps* are usually characteristic, are often 150 to 200 feet high, and they very often have clear stems of 100 feet before the first branch is reached. These forests are found in the areas with the heaviest rainfall. In the southern or Peninsular region, they occur along the Western Ghats from a little south of Bombay to Tirunelveli, *i.e.*, in the western parts of Bombay, Madras, Coorg, Mysore and Travancore-Cochin. In the northern or Indo-Gangetic region, the type is to be found in the wetter parts of West Bengal extending into the damper parts of the coastal strip of Orissa, and intermingled with the next two types over almost the whole of Assam. The type also occurs extensively in the Andamans.

2. Tropical Semi-Evergreen Forests.—These form an intermediate type between the wet and the moist types. They are fairly widely distributed in the northern region, occurring all over upper Assam and in north and south of West Bengal (Buxa, Jalpaiguri, Kurseong, Kalimpong), and in Orissa (Puri, Angul). In the south, however, the type is not extensive, owing to the steep rainfall gradient in the Western Ghats, and it is limited to narrow strips just north of Bombay, near Goa, south Cochin and part of Coorg. Forming a dense forest of several canopies, there are again numerous evergreen species, but mixed with them are many deciduous species, such as the *Terminalias*, and the general height is somewhat less than in the wet evergreen forests.

3. Tropical Moist Deciduous Forests.—In these forests the trees are leafless for part of the year, and although the canopy is complete, the forests are not so dense, nor are the trees so tall as in the preceding types. The height of the dominant trees varies from 100 to 150 feet. In the southern region, *Teak* is the chief tree, mixed with *Terminalias* and many other species. The type is widely distributed all over the centre and south of India, in Madhya Pradesh, Bombay, Madras, Mysore, Coorg, Cochin-Travancore. In the north, *Sal* (*Shorea robusta*) is the dominant species, and the type extends extensively through West Bengal, Assam, Bihar, Orissa, and Uttar Pradesh up to the eastern border of East Punjab.

4. Tropical Dry Deciduous Forests.—This type is found throughout the Peninsula, in Bombay, Madhya Pradesh, Hyderabad, Mysore and Madras, and in the Indo-Gangetic Plain, from Orissa, through Bihar and Uttar Pradesh to East Punjab, wherever the annual rainfall is from about 30 to 50 inches. In the south, the most important tree is again *Teak*, but there are many associates, which often become the dominant species. In the north, the forest is typically mixed, with *Sal* occurring only locally.

5. Tropical Thorn Forests.—The dry tract throughout the Peninsula, to the lee of the Western Ghats, from the extreme south to Indore and Bhopal, with a rainfall of only 20 to 35 inches per year, is characterised by a low open forest of thorny trees, of which various species of *Acacia* are especially common. The corresponding area in the north has an even lower rainfall, 10 to 30 inches per year. It lies chiefly in the drier parts of Uttar Pradesh, especially on unfavourable soils. *Acacias* are again characteristic, although less prominent than in the south and the related tree *Prosopis spicigera* is also generally distributed.

6. Tropical Dry Evergreen Forests.—A special type is met on the Carnatic coast, where the rainfall is 30 to 50 inches per year, largely from the retreating (north-east) monsoon in October and November. Here there is a low forest 30 to 40 feet high, consisting of small thick leaved evergreen trees, such as *Mimusops hexandra* and *Memecylon edule*.

II.—SOUTHERN SUBTROPICAL AND TEMPERATE FORESTS

These are represented only by wet types on the higher hills, such as the Nilgiris and Palni hills, where the rainfall is relatively high. The subtropical zone, from about 3,000 feet to 5,500 feet, has a dense evergreen forest of medium height (60 feet) in which *Eugenia* is a characteristic genus, with *Lauraceæ* and other families also well represented. Above this, in the temperate zone, rolling grassy downs are characteristic, as round Ootacamund, with patches of forest, known as *sholas*, occupying the sheltered folds in the hills. These forests, probably the relics of former much more extensive forests which have been reduced by burning, felling and grazing, are typically a relatively low but fairly dense evergreen type, 50 to 60 feet high, with a great variety of trees, among which *Ternstræmia*, *Eugenia* and *Melisosma* are typical general.

III.—NORTHERN SUBTROPICAL FORESTS

1. Subtropical Wet Hill Forests.—This type occurs on the lower slopes of the Eastern Himalayas and in the Assam-Burma hills, from a little under 3,000 feet to 6,000 feet. The forests are mostly of good height (up to 150 feet) and density, characterised by many species of evergreen *Oaks* and *Chestnuts*, with many other temperate trees, such as *Alder* and *Birch*, which are deciduous for short periods. *Pines* are typically absent, or are confined to drier sandy soils or well drained ridges, while *Dipterocarps* sometimes extend upwards from the tropical wet evergreen forests.

2. Subtropical Moist Hill Forests.—These extend to the whole length of the Western and Central Himalayas, from East Punjab to Bhutan, mostly between 3,000 and 6,000 feet but descending in places to 2,000 feet, and ascending on southerly aspects to 7,500 feet.

The principal tree is the *Chir* or *Chil* pine (*Pinus longifolia*), which forms almost pure forests over extensive areas. *Oaks*, *Rhododendrons* and other trees mix with or replace the *Chir* at the higher levels and in damper situations.

The type extends eastwards into the Khasi, Naga, Manipur hills, but instead of the *Chir* the dominant tree is the *Khasi pine* (*Pinus khasya*).

3. Subtropical Dry Evergreen Forests.—These are open low scrub forests of evergreen trees and thorny shrubs, in which the chief species is the *Olive* (*Olea cuspidata*). They occur from about 1,500 feet to 5,000 feet in the Himalayan foothills and Kashmir extending westwards into Pakistan and other countries. The forests have mostly been considerably impoverished by grazing, lopping and felling and with protection the general density becomes much better.

IV.—NORTHERN TEMPERATE FORESTS

1. Wet Temperate Forests.—These are found in the Eastern Himalayas from Nepal eastwards, extending through West Bengal into the higher hills of Assam from about 6,000 feet to 9,500 feet. They are typically fairly dense evergreen forests, in which several species of *Oaks* and *Chestnuts* predominate, but many other species are also present, including typically deciduous trees such as *Maple*, *Elm* and *Prunus*.

2. Moist Temperate Forests.—Along the Himalayas in Uttar Pradesh, Kashmir, East Punjab, Nepal and the Darjeeling district, and Sikkim and Bhutan, at altitudes from 5,000 to 11,000 feet, and with a rainfall from 40 to 100 inches per year, are to be found extensive coniferous forests similar to the temperate forests of Europe and North America. The chief trees are *Spruce, Silver Fir, Cedar* (*Deodar*), *Blue Pine* (*Pinus excelsa*), and *Tsuga*. *Cypress* and *Yew* also occur to a less extent. Often these trees are mixed together, but pure crops of one or the other are generally more frequent, depending on the altitude, aspect and other conditions. Evergreen *Oaks* are also often present, particularly on southern aspects, while in the damper situations are often many broad leaved trees, also typical of European forests, such as *Maples, Hornbeam, Horse Chestnut, Birch, Elm,* etc.

3. Dry Temperate Forests.—In the inner ranges of the Himalayas, where the south-west monsoon is feeble, and the rainfall is usually less than 40 inches a year, and that is mostly in the form of winter snow, is to be found extending from 5,000 to 10,000 feet a drier and more open type of temperate forest. It consists chiefly of the conifers *Cedar* (*Deodar*), *Pinus gerardiana* and *Juniper* (*J. macropoda*), with some *Silver Fir* and *Blue Pine* at higher elevations. Broad leaved trees, such as *Maple, Ash* and the *Holm Oak*, occur scattered or in pure patches, while the *Olive* spreads up from the dry subtropical zone. The type occurs in Kashmir, Chamba, Inner Garhwal and Sikkim. Among the herbs and shrubs present are many medicinal plants, such as *Artemisia* and *Ephedra*.

V.—ALPINE FORESTS

The uppermost forests of the Himalayas, from about 9,500 to 12,000 feet, consist of a dense growth of small trees and large shrubs, chiefly *Birch, Rhododendron* and dwarf *Juniper* with patches of coniferous overwood of high level *Silver Fir* and *Blue Pine*.

This gives place to an alpine scrub above, consisting of dwarf *Rhododendrons, Junipers* and other shrubs, interspersed with patches of grassland, which form excellent grazing areas in summer, when they are covered with a great variety of beautiful alpine flowers.

VI.—SPECIAL FOREST TYPES

Among various special edaphic and seral forest types, the following may be mentioned :—

1. Beach Forests.—All round the coast, wherever a fair width of sandy beach occurs, there is a fringe of forest in which *Casuarina*, originally introduced from Australia, is now often the most characteristic species. Elsewhere, small evergreen and deciduous trees form a low but fairly dense fringe along the shore.

2. Tidal Forests.—In the Sunderbans of the Ganges-Brahmaputra delta, and along the mouths of other large rivers, such as the Mahanadi and Godaveri are to be found *Mangrove* (*Rhizophera, Brouquiera,* etc.) and *Sundri* (*Heritiera*) forests, typical of salt water swamps. Many of the trees have stilt roots for support, and " knees " or pneumatophores projecting upwards from the swamps to provide aeration for the roots.

3. Fresh-water Swamp Forests.—These are not very extensive, but are to be found above the salt water limit in the deltas of the large rivers, and also in depressions, often old river beds, in parts of Assam, West Bengal, Uttar Pradesh and Madras. They are subject to prolonged annual flooding and have various species according to the locality. The delta type in Bengal supports the best of the *Sundri* forests, often over 100 feet high.

4. Riverain Forests.—Along all the larger rivers on the banks of new alluvium are to be found stretches of moisture-loving trees, such as *Lagerstræmia flos-regina, Terminalia myriocarpa* and *Salix tetrasperma*. On recently deposited gravels and sand, extensive stretches of which occur along many river courses both in the north and the south, are often to be found forests in various stages of succession, depending on how new or old is the deposit, on the rainfall and other local factors. Perhaps the most characteristic are the *Khair* (*Acacia catechu*), *Sissoo* (*Dalbergia sissu*) and *Tamarix* forests found throughout the north from Assam to East Punjab. These forests are usually characterised by heavy grass, and with protection they slowly change to a more miscellaneous type of forest by the gradual colonising of other species.

VII.—THE BAMBOOS

No account of the forests of the country would be complete without a reference to the *Bamboos*, of which there are very many species occurring in the tropical, subtropical and temperate zones. Tall bamboos, such as *Bambusa arundinacea* and *Dendrocalamus hamiltonii*, often form a very dense undergrowth in the tropical semi-evergreen and moist deciduous forests, while *Dendrocalamus strictus* is locally abundant and economically important in the drier parts of the tropical moist deciduous forests and in some of the tropical dry deciduous forests. One of the important results of forest research is the utilisation of bamboos for the making of paper, but there are still extensive areas of forests with a dense undergrowth of bamboos, which are not at present economically exploitable and which often greatly hinder other forest operations.

FOREST POLICY

The general policy of the Government in relation to forests was definitely laid down in 1894 by the classification of the areas under the control of the Department into four broad classes, namely :—

(*a*) Forests the preservation of which is essential on climatic or physical grounds. These are usually situated in hilly country where the retention of forest growth is of vital importance on account of its influence on the storage of the rainfall and on the prevention of erosion and sudden floods.

(*b*) Forests which afford a supply of valuable timbers for commercial purposes, such, for example, as the teak forests of the centre and the south, the sal forests of the north, the centre and the north-east and the deodar and pine forests of the north-western Himalayas.

(*c*) Minor Forests, containing somewhat inferior kinds of timber and managed for the production of wood, fodder, grazing and other produce for local consumption ; these forests are of great importance in agricultural districts.

(*d*) Pasture lands.—These are not " forests " in the generally understood sense of the term but grazing grounds managed by the Forest Department merely as a matter of convenience.

These four classes of forest are not always sharply divided from each other, and one and the same tract may to a certain extent be managed with more than one object.

Administration.—The forest business of the Government of India is carried out in their Departments of Agriculture. The Inspector-General of Forests is the technical adviser to the Government in forest matters. Under the Constitution of 1919 Forests were made a transferred subject in Bombay where they had long been administered by the Provincial Governments, and in 1924 the Reforms Inquiry Committee presided over by Sir Alexander Muddiman, the then Home Member of the Government of India, recommended that they be transferred to other provinces too unless any local Government on examination of the position could make out a convincing case against the transfer in its own province. After the Constitution of 1935 Forests were included in the schedule of Provincial subjects throughout India. And in the Constitution Act of 1950 they remain on the State list.

Territorial Charges.—The various States are divided into one or more Forest Circles, each in charge of a Conservator of Forests ; usually States containing three or more circles also have a Chief Conservator who is the head of the Department for his State. Circles are divided into a number of Forest Divisions, in charge of members of the superior Forest Service. Each Division contains a number of Ranges in charge of Forest Rangers or Deputy Rangers ; heavy Divisions are also sometimes divided into Sub-divisions. The Ranges are further sub-divided into a number of rounds and beats. These are protective as well as administrative sub-divisions held by Foresters and Forest Guards.

Apart from territorial charges there are various important posts of a non-territorial nature connected with Forest Research and Education, Silviculture, Utilisation and the preparation of Forest Working Plans.

The training of Forest Rangers for India is concentrated at the Indian Forest Ranger College, Dehra Dun : but in addition to sending candidates to this college, Madras and Bombay have their own Forest College for training Forest Rangers.

The training of subordinates below the rank of Rangers is carried out in various local forest schools and training classes.

FOREST EDUCATION

Forest education in India first started with the founding in 1878, of a Forest School at Dehra Dun, for the training of forest rangers. Direct training for the Provincial Service officers started in 1914, and continued upto 1928, when it was replaced by training for the I.F.S. With the cessation of recruitment to the I.F.S. the Indian Forest College was established and probationers are now being trained directly for the Superior Forest Services of the various States.

The original Forest School, established in 1878, came directly under the Government of India in 1884, when it became known as the Imperial Forest College, and trained Rangers at first for all the States. In 1912, the Madras Forest College was opened at Coimbatore, serving Madras, Bombay, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar and Orissa, and the Imperial Forest College at Dehra Dun serving the rest of India. The Madras Forest College was closed on 1st July, 1939, but was reopened for Madras candidates only in 1945. The Government of India took over the Madras Forest College in 1948, as a Central Government Institute under the auspices of the Forest Research Institute and Colleges and it has been expanded and equipped to train both rangers and forest officers. The Imperial Forest College at Dehra Dun has now been renamed the Indian Forest Ranger College, to distinguish it from the new Indian Forest College, for the training of officers for the Superior Forest Services, opened in 1938.

The Director of Forest Education though under the administrative control of the President is the Head of the Forest Colleges at Dehra Dun and Coimbatore. The Colleges are :—

(*i*) Indian Forest College with a Principal as the Head.

(*ii*) Indian Forest Rangers' College with a Director as the Head:

& (*iii*) Madras Forest College, Coimbatore, with a Principal as the Head.

Research.—The Ranger College became also a recognised centre of forest research in 1906.

In 1914 the first Forest Research Institute was opened on the Chandbagh Estate, Dehra Dun. Within a few years the war demand for forest produce emphasised the scope and need for extensive research far beyond that for which accommodation had been provided. Plans were therefore made for a new Forest Research Institute on the Kaulagarh (New Forest) estate a few miles out of Dehra Dun. The Institute was opened in November, 1929

It is under the administrative control of the President. There are the following branches, *viz* :—

(A) (*i*) Silviculture; (*ii*) Botany; (*iii*) Mycology; (*iv*) Statistical; (*v*) Entomology.

(B) (*i*) Chemistry of Forest Products; (*ii*) Minor Forest Products; (*iii*) Timber Mechanics; (*iv*) Service Branch; (*v*) Wood Preservation; (*vi*) Composite Wood; (*vii*) Wood Seasoning; (*viii*) Cellulose and Paper; (*ix*) Wood Anatomy.

In addition there is a Publicity & Liaison Branch under the Director of Forest Education which functions as a liaison office between the enquirers both of Government and commercial interest and the activities of the Institute in research, training and conference etc.

Silviculture, which deals with all the production side of forestry, is under the direction of a Silviculturist. Much of the actural research work is, however, decentralised and done by local State silviculturists in the States, but the Central Silviculturist co-ordinates their work, does all the statistical computing and acts as an information bureau on silvicultural matters for the whole of India.

Forest Products.—Forest produce is divided into two main heads—(1) Major produce, *i.e.*, timber and firewood, and (2) Minor produce, comprising all other products such as bamboos, canes, leaves, fruits, fibres, grasses, gums, resins, essential oils, medicinal and poisonous plants, fatty oils and fats, dyes, tans and animal and mineral products. All aspects of research on the minor forest produce, such as survey, methods of exploitation, and cultivation, are dealt with by the Minor Forest Products Branch, and their Chemistry by the Chemistry of Forest Products Branch.

The annual out-turn of timber and fuel from all sources averages about 306 million cubic feet.

In the Andamans notable developments have taken place. In the past, extraction of timber was done by elephant dragging with the result that only a fringe of the forests could be touched. Attempts were made in employing American methods of mechanical logging, for which machinery was bought and an American expert employed to take charge of the work. The costs of extraction, however, by these means proved too high. Recently the problem has been solved by means of light tramways, the trains of trucks being drawn by elephants which have been superannuated from ordinary work, and it has been found possible in this way to work large, hitherto inaccessible areas of forest very cheaply. Elsewhere in the country a great part of the trade in timber lies in the hands of contractors who are, on the whole, regarded trustworthy if sufficient control over their operations is exercised.

Forest Industries.—The important role which the forests of a country play in its general commercial welfare and in providing employment for its population is not always fully recognised. If accurate estimates were available for the country they would no doubt show that apart from the jungle population which is directly dependent on the forests and the large numbers of wood-cutters, sawyers, carters, carriers, craftsmen and others working in and near them, employment on an enormous scale is provided to persons engaged in working up the raw products. Among these latter may be mentioned carpenters, wheelwrights, coopers, boat-builders, tanners, drug manufacturers, rope-makers, lac-manufacturers, perfumers, gum and resin collectors, basketmakers, and many other classes of skilled labourers. The census show nearly a million people and their dependents so employed in the country and nearly a further half million in the States, but these are probably below the actuals, as much forest labour is not whole-time labour, devo ting seven or eight months in the year to forest work and the rest to agriculture. With the opening up of the forests, the extension of systematic working, the wider use of known product, and the possible discovery of new products, a steady and extensive development of industries dependent on the forests of the country may be confidently anticipated in the future.

Financial Results.—The Revenue for 1946-47 was Rs. 13,68,21,000; expenditure Rs. 4,98,90,000. Net Revenue surplus Rs. 8,69,31,000. The total output for 1946-47 was worth Rs. 46 crores, timber and fuel accounting for 44 and minor products for 2.

Agencies.—The general practice of the Forest Departments in the Government of India and the various States is to conduct their own sales direct with timber dealers or large consumers though there are notable exceptions. Indian timber marketing in England (especially Andaman timbers) is now done under the direction of a Timber Adviser who is attached to the Office of the High Commissioner for India. Sales of Indian timbers and especially timbers from the Andamans are steadily increasing.

A large number of bulletins and other publications are issued by the Forest Research Institute. Of these a list can be obtained from the Publicity and Liaison Officer, Forest Research Institute, New Forest, Dehra Dun, who maintains close liaison with trade and industry.

FOREST AREA (1946-47)

(Figures relate to Reporting Areas only) (Sq. miles)

State	Area under Forest Department			
	Reserved Forests	Protected Forests	Unclassed Forests	Total forest area under Forest Dept.
Assam	6,691	93	14,484	21,268
Bihar(*a*)	1,451	807	34	2,292
Bombay(*b*)	12,217	219	217	12,653(*q*)
Madhya Pradesh	19,425	—	—	19,425
Madras	15,833(*l*)	37	—	15,870(*m*)
Orissa(*c*)	3,318	1,417	1,735	6,470
Punjab	486	3,845	428	4,759
Uttar Pradesh(*d*)	8,903(*n*)	947	78	9,928(*o*)
West Bengal	2,648	1	—	2,649(*p*)
Hyderabad	4,567	4,293	687	9,547
Madhya Bharat(*e*)	—	—	65	65
PEPSU	60	39	139	238
Rajasthan(*f*)	1,683	1,545	510	3,738
Saurashtra(*g*)	616	10	—	626
Travancore-Cochin	2,989	77	—	3,066
Ajmer	73	—	—	73
Coorg	517	26(*i*)	291(*i*)	834(*i*)
Himachal Pradesh(*h*)	422	315	239	976
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	1,498	554	137	2,189(*j*)
TOTAL ..	83,397	14,225	19,044	116,666

(*a*) Including Saraikella.
(*b*) Including Jath, Kolhapur, Mudhol, Rajpipla, Sangli and Baroda.
(*c*) Including Gangpur, Keonjhar, Nilgiri and Rairakhol.
(*d*) Including Rampur and Tehri Garhwal.
(*e*) Mathwar only.
(*f*) Bikaner, Jaipur, Jodhpur, Alwar, Bharatpur, Dungarpur and Kotah only.
(*g*) Porbander and Junagadh only.
(*h*) Chamba, Jubbal, Sirmur and Suket only.
(*i*) Not under direct control of Forest Department.
(*j*) Balance area (20%) occupied by Settlement and Mangroves.
(*k*) Excludes about 341 sq. miles of Banes (private forest land where in the ownership of timber rests with the Government under certain conditions).
(*l*) Represents reserved lands and leased forests.
(*m*) Including 339 sq. miles of Panchayat Class III forests transferred to the control of the Forest Department but excludes 2,918 sq. miles under the Panchayat Management and 7 sq. miles under management of other Department.
(*n*) Includes 1 sq. mile of leased forests.
(*o*) Excludes 8,068 sq. miles of forests area belonging to crown but not under the control of the Forest Department (*e.g.* Dhudi Govt. Estate Forests and Kumaon Class I forest).
(*p*) Excludes 3 sq. miles of unclassed State forests and 1,207 sq. miles of leased lands.
(*q*) Excludes 2,153 sq. miles in charge of Revenue Department.

Revenue, Expenditure

(Thousands of rupees)

State	Revenue	Expenditure	Net Revenue (Surplus)
Assam	6,838	(—) 5,150	11,988
Bihar	2,814	1,676	1,138
Bombay	31,073	11,407	19,666
Madhya Pradesh	18,873	7,457	11,416
Madras	15,868	7,972	7,896
Orissa	3,169	1,482	1,687
Punjab	4,084	3,471	613
Uttar Pradesh	20,680	6,687	13,993
West Bengal	3,461	3,367	94
Hyderabad	8,940	1,800	7,140
Madhya Bharat	1,343	337	1,006
PEPSU	236	93	143
Rajasthan	1,546	968	578
Saurashtra	307	201	106
Travancore-Cochin	10,628	3,956	6,672
Ajmer	197*	265*	(—) 68
Coorg	2,161	448	1,713
Himachal Pradesh	2,782	804	1,978
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	1,821	2,649	(—) 828
TOTAL ..	1,36,821	49,890	86,931

* Includes sum of Rs. 1,46,000 as forest profit distributed to Khawatdars who contributed land towards the formation of Government Reserved forest.

Note :—The total in columns 3 and 4 excludes the Revenue and expenditure of Rs. 4,73,000 and 15,63,000 respectively in respect of Forest Research Institute and Colleges.

CLIMBING IN THE HIMALAYAS

THE results of mountaineering in the Himalayas which has now a history of nearly a hundred years behind it, may be summed up as follows: The highest mountains so far climbed are Annapurna in Nepal (26,000 ft.) by M. Hertog in 1950; Nanda Devi (25,660 ft.) by W. H. Tilman in 1936; and Kamet (25,447 ft.) by F. S. Symthe in 1931. Nanda Devi and Kamet are in the central Himalayas. Among the more important of the lesser peaks climbed are Siniolchu (22,610 ft.), Tent Peak (24,165 ft.). The higher peaks in the Himalayas on which attempts have been made are Mt. Everest (29,141 ft.), Mt. Godwin Austen or K2 (28,250 ft.), Mt. Kanchenjunga (28,146 ft.), and Nanga Parbat. Five attempts were made to climb Mt. Everest, the first in 1922 and the last in 1938. There were also two reconnaissance expeditions in 1921 and 1925. All the attempts made to get to the top failed, some of them disastrously. Two among the best known men who were killed were G. L. Mallory and A. C. Irvine both of whom died in the second attempt on Everest in 1924. The highest point ever reached in these expeditions is 28,100 ft. a height which was reached twice, first in 1924 and second in 1933. This is also the greatest height ever reached in any of the expeditions to the whole range. Mention may also be made of the air expedition which flew over Mt. Everest in 1933 and took many useful photographs of the peak. The results of the expedition on other peaks may be quickly summarized. Two attempts were made on Mt. Godwin Austen (1938, 1939) both of which were unsuccessful. On Kanchenjunga no less than five attempts were made (1905, two in 1929, 1930, 1931) but all of them ended in failure. Nanga Parbat was a German target, and saw four expeditions (1934, 1937, 1938, 1939) none of which succeeded in scaling the heights.

Some of the great names associated with Himalayan mountaineering are G. L. Mallory, A. C. Irvine, Hugh Ruttledge, F. S. Smythe, E. E. Shipton, N. E. Odell, W. H. Tilman, Dr. Merkl, Dr. Wien, Dr. Paul Baur and Dudley Wolf.

1950 EXPEDITIONS

There were no notable expeditions during the years 1940-1948 owing to the world war. In 1949 there were four minor expeditions chiefly of an exploratory nature. (See end of article).

In 1950 there were four important expeditions. A Norwegian expedition led by Prof. Arne Naess made the first ascent of the Tirch Mir in the Chitral range of the Himalayas. A Scottish expedition under the leadership of W. H. Murray traversed the Gharwal range from west to east. It also successfully made the first ascent of Uja Tirch which has a height of about 21,000 ft. But by far the most important event of the year was the ascent of Annapurna in Nepal by a French expedition led by M. Hertog. Annapurna which has a height of 26,000 ft., is the highest peak in the world so far climbed. A British expedition to Nepal under W. H. Tilman also tried to climb Annapurna unsuccessfully. The main purpose of this expedition however was scientific.

A French Himalayan expedition has been planned for 1951 by the Lyons section of the French Alpine Club and the Lyons Himalaya Committee.

It will climb in the Garhwal Himalayas, where though the highest peaks have been conquered there are objectives which lure a mountaineer.

"Our aim," said M. Roger Duplat, the leader, "is not so much to attack a summit as to conduct a three months' Himalayan campaign. Doubtless we shall make some ascents and reconquer, by a new path, a summit approaching an altitude of 8,750 yards."

The other members of the team are M. L. Gevril (35), M. A. Barbezat (28), M. L. Dubost 25), M. G. Vignes (24), M. L. Payan (30) and M. J. J. Languepin. M. Vignes and M. Languepin are the doctor and cine-cameraman, respectively, of the expedition.

Three other foreign mountaineering expeditions are also likely to visit the Himalayas in 1951. Parties from New Zealand and Germany propose to climb in Garhwal and an expedition from Ceylon is also expected. Mr. Oshoka Madgaokar of Bombay also proposes to climb in Nepal according to a statement in Parliament.

Below is given a detailed account of some of the more important of the past expeditions to the Himalayas.

A HISTORY

Owing to their immensity and the time and cost involved in undertaking expeditions into the Himalayas a great deal of mountaineering and exploration remains to be done in the world's highest mountain range. There are over fifty summits of 25,000 ft. and of these only two, Kamet (25,447 ft.) and Nanda Devi, (25,660 ft.) have been scaled, while there are innumerable lesser summits of such formidable difficulty, owing to the comparatively recent geological formation of the range, that judged by modern mountaineering standards the majority are inaccessible. The highest peak is Mount Everest, which by latest measurements is 29,141 ft. Next come Godwin Austen (K2), 28,250 ft. and Kanchenjunga 28,146 ft.

Pioneer Climbers.—Mountaineering in the Himalayas began some hundred years ago when surveyors crossed high passes and scaled peaks in the course of their work. Among these pioneers must be mentioned the Schlagintweit brothers, who in 1855 reached a height of 22,329 ft. on the Eastern Ibi Gamin, one of the subsidiary peaks of Kamet, while I. S. Pocock of the Survey of India set up a plane table at 22,040 ft. in the same district. Another notable early explorer was the famous botanist Sir Joseph Hooker who, in 1849, explored the Sikkim valleys of Kanchenjunga and made attempts to climb Kangchenjau, 22,700 ft. and Pauhunri, 23,180 ft. Some remarkable explorations were also carried out by the Pandits of the Survey of India. Among these men was Babu Sarat Chandra Das who traversed the Jonsong La, 20,200 ft.

Later in the nineteenth century came Lord Conway who, in 1892, made explorations in the Karakoram Himalayas, in the region of the Baltoro Glacier, one of the greatest of Himalayan glaciers, and climbed a peak of 23,000 ft. Sir Francis Younghusband also made explorations in the Karakorams and accomplished the first crossing of the Karakoram Pass. The Duke of Abruzzi also made a number of expeditions into this range and reached a height of 25,000 ft. on the Bride Peak. Mountaineering developed rapidly in the nineties, and a bold attempt was made by A. F. Mummery, Professor N. Collie and Brigadier-General the Hon. C. G. Bruce to climb Nanga Parbat. In a final attempt on the mountain, Mummery and his two Gurkhas were lost. In 1899 D. W. Freshfield made the first circuit of Kanchenjunga and explored the Nepal side of the mountain.

MOUNT KAMET

Meanwhile, thanks to Brigadier-General Bruce, Gurkhas, and later Sherpas and Bhotias were trained for mountaineering and, with the advent of first-class porterage, Himalayan mountaineering entered on a new phase. Dr. and Mrs. Bullock Workman made a number of expeditions into the Karakorams and W. W. Graham made a number of remarkable ascents, with Swiss guides, including an ascent of Kabru, 24,000 ft., which has been the subject of much controversy. Kabru was later attempted by two Norwegians, Messrs. Rubenstein and Monrad Aas, who got within a few feet of the top.

The present century opened with a number of remarkable ascents by Dr. A. M. Kellas, who died during the 1921 Everest expedition. He climbed several great peaks including Kangchenjau, Pauhunri and Chomiomo and made expeditions to the Central Himalayas where, with Colonel H. T. Morshead he reached in 1920 an altitude of 23,500 ft. on Kamet.

In 1907 Brigadier-General Bruce, Dr. T. G. Longstaff and A. L. Mumm explored the Garhwal Himalayas and reconnoitred Kamet. After this Longstaff, with the Swiss guides Alexis and Henri Brocherel, ascended Trisul, 23,406 ft. which, until the Jonsong Peak, 24,344 ft., was climbed in 1930 remained the highest summit reached at the time. In 1911 and 1912 attempts were made to climb Kamet by C. F. Meade and his Swiss guides and a height of 23,500 ft. was gained. Captain Morris Slingby also attempted Kamet at this time.

At last in the summer of 1931 a party of young British climbers led by F. S. Smythe succeeded in reaching the summit of Mount Kamet (25,447 ft.), the first peak over 25,000 ft. to be climbed.

MOUNT KANCHENJUNGA

The first attempt on Kanchenjunga was made in 1905 but ended in disaster, Lieut. Pache and three porters being killed by an avalanche. The second attempt in 1929 was made by a solitary American, E. F. Farmer, who also lost his life. In the same year a determined attempt was made by a party of Bavarian mountaineers led by Paul Bauer. A height of over 24,000 ft. was reached on the north-east spur before bad weather forced the party to retreat.

In 1930 a fourth attempt was made by an international expedition led by Professor G. Dyhrenfurth. The party attempted the mountain from the Nepal side, but were repulsed by an ice avalanche which killed one of the porters. Subsequently, they ascended a number of peaks including the Ramthang Peak, 23,200 ft. and the Jonsong Peak 24,344 ft.

The fifth attempt in 1931 was made by Bauer and his party, but failed at a slightly greater elevation than was attained in 1929. One of the party H. Schaller and a porter were killed by a fall during the expedition.

MOUNT EVEREST

There have been seven expeditions to Mount Everest of which those in 1921 and 1935 were reconnaissances and those in 1922, 1924, 1933, 1936 and 1938 attempts to reach the summit.

The preliminary expedition for the reconnaissance of the approaches to Mt. Everest carried out its work in the most complete manner under the leadership of Lt.-Col. C. K. Howard-Bury. The approaches to Mt. Everest on all its northern faces were thoroughly examined, and relations were established with the local authorities. On the information and experience of the reconnaissance expedition the second expedition to Everest was organised and set off the following year (1922) under Brig.-Gen. the Hon. C. G. Bruce. Capt. G. I. Finch and Capt. J. G. Bruce succeeded with the help of oxygen in reaching the height of 27,300 ft. During this expedition seven men were killed when an avalanche swept them over an ice cliff some 60 feet high.

The 1924 expedition was again commanded by Brig.-Gen. Bruce. But owing to his ill health Lt.-Colonel E. F. Norton took on the command. Lt.-Col. E. F. Norton and Dr. T. H. Somervell reached a height of 28,100 feet. Then a final attempt was made by G. L. Mallory and A. C. Irvine. They were assisted by a supporting party consisting of N. E. Odell and J. de V. Hazard. On June 6th they left the 25,000 feet camp with three porters who carried loads for them up to 26,800 ft. On June

8th they left camp for their attempt and were never seen again. On June 10th for the third time Odell climbed up to the 26,800 feet camp but could find no sign of Mallory and Irvine, and communicating with Norton evacuated the mountain.

The expedition of 1933 followed a successful effort by Lt.-Col. J. L. R. Weir, Political Officer in Sikkim, to obtain the permission of the Tibetan Government for a further attempt to climb the mountain. An Everest Committee was formed under the ægis of the Royal Geographical Society and the Alpine Club, and Mr. Hugh Ruttledge, formerly of the I.C.S., accepted an invitation to take charge of the expedition. Included in it as members were Mr. F.S. Smythe, leader of the successful Kamet Expedition of 1931, and Capt. E. St. J. Birnie, E. E. Shipton and Dr. C. R. Greene who climbed with Mr. Smythe in 1931. The expedition reached Calcutta in February and forthwith proceeded to its main task.

The 1933 expedition established its base in the Rongbuk Valley on April 17th and on April 21st. Camp I was established. Thenceforward the expedition was dogged by exceptionally bad pre-monsoon weather which greatly hindered the establishment of camps and made the ascent to the North Col. 23,000 ft. prolonged and arduous wqrk. Camp IV, 22,800 ft. was not established until the middle of May after a 40 feet ice wall on the North Col. slopes had been climbed. The expedition was equipped with wireless which enabled weather reports to be received from the meteorological authorities at Alipore. One installation was at Darjeeling, one at the base camp and a third at Camp III, 21,000 ft. Camp III was linked to the North Col. by field telephone so that messages could be received up to 23,000 ft. from the plains of India in a short space of time.

Owing to a series of blizzards and high winds Camp V was not established until May 22nd. But it was pitched at 25,500 ft. several hundred feet higher than previously. The party was then cut off for three days by a furious blizzard and eventually had to retreat to Camp IV. The Camp was re-established on May 28th and on May 29th. Wyn Harris, L. Wager and J. L. Longland continued the ascent and finally pitched Camp VI at 27,400 ft., 600 ft. higher than in 1924, after a magnificent effort on the part of the porters. Longland then brought the porters down but had a terrible time in a blizzard and only by exercising great mountaineering skill steered them down to Camp V. The following morning Wyn Harris and Wager made a reconnaissance of the route to the summit and failing to discover a route along the crest of the north-east ridge finally followed the same route as Norton in 1924. They were stopped by dangerous conditions at 28,100 ft. and returned to Camp VI where they met Shipton and Smythe who had come up from Camp V, after which they descended to Camp V. The following morning Shipton and Smythe were unable to leave Camp VI owing to a high wind but on June 1st they made their attempt on the summit.

An hour and a half after leaving the Camp Shipton had to return owing to some internal trouble. Smythe carried on alone and reached approximately the same point as Wyn Harris and Wager before he was forced to retreat owing to the deep powdery snow resting on the steep slabs. Shipton descended to Camp V the same day in very bad weather and Smythe spent a third night at Camp VI descending to Camp IV next day in a blizzard. Owing to frost-bites, strained hearts, and high altitude deterioration the party had to retire to the base camp. A week later they returned to Camp III to make another attempt. Owing, however, to the breaking of the monsoon this had to be abandoned and the expedition returned to Darjeeling.

An extraordinary attempt to climb Everest was made in 1934 by Maurice Wilson, a young airman. Having penetrated Tibet in disguise he marched to Everest and with a few porters went on in reaching 21,000 feet. He then proceeded alone and nothing more was heard of him, until his body was discovered near the site of Camp III, 21,000 feet, by Shipton's party in 1935.

Early in 1935 the Tibetan Government granted permission for a further attempt to take place from June 1935 to June 1936 inclusive.

As there was no time to organise an attempt on the summit it was decided to send out a small party under the leadership of Mr. E. E. Shipton. This had as its objects: Collection of data as to monsoon snow and weather conditions; examination of alternative routes from the west, the trying out of new men for the summit attempt; physiological observations; a stereophotogrammetric survey; examination of ice formations on the North Col.

This expedition proved that Everest cannot be ascended during the monsoon and that the only hope of an ascent is during the period immediately before the monsoon.

Conditions during the monsoon are extremely dangerous and the party had a narrow escape from an enormous avalanche that fell from the slopes of the North Col.

During the course of this reconnaissance two dozen peaks over 20,000 feet high were ascended.

1936 Expedition—The 1936 expedition was led by Mr. Hugh Ruttledge and included three of the 1933 climbers Messrs. Shipton, Smythe and Wyn Harris, and one of the 1933 Signals Officers Lieut. Smith Windham. It encountered exceptionally bad weather and unusual conditions. Before the monsoon, snowstorms rendered the mountain unclimbable and the usual pre-monsoon north-west wind was lacking to clear the snow away. However, Camp IV on the North Col. was established to schedule and the party were in position to attack the summit when the weather broke and two feet of snow forced them to retreat down the dangerous slopes of the North Col. To cap their discomfiture the monsoon arrived on the exceptionally early date of May 24th. Two attempts were made to re-open the route to the North Col. but on both occasions the party were in great danger and the attempt had to be abandoned when Shipton and Wyn Harris were carried down by an avalanche and nearly lost their lives. Subsequently reconnaissance parties ascended the main Rongbuk Glacier and examined the west side of the North Col. which, in spite of Mallory's unfavourable verdict, was found to be not only practicable but less dangerous in monsoon conditions than the east side.

The 1938 expedition consisted of seven climbers, H. W. Tilman, E. E. Shipton, F. S. Smythe, N. E. Odell, Dr. C. B. M. Warren, P. Lloyd and Capt. P. R. Oliver and was led by Tilman. It was considerably smaller than previous expeditions owing to economic reasons and because experience has shown that the small light expedition has as good and perhaps better chance of achieving its object than a large cumbersome expedition rendered comparatively immobile by its transport and tied down to a fixed plan. Though the expedition failed to reach the summit of Mount Everest it fully justified these beliefs and cost only £2,500 as against the £10,000 or more of previous Everest expeditions.

The expedition reached Rongbuk on April 6th and established Camp 3 on April 26th. Wind and cold made further advance impossible and the party descended to the Kharta valley for a rest and to recuperate from influenza, chills and sore throats. They returned in the middle of May during the commencement of the monsoon which broke on the unprecedented date of May 5th, one month to six weeks earlier than usual. The route up the North Col. was forced in dangerous snow conditions and the party had a narrow escape from an avalanche. Camp 4 was established on May 24th but snowstorms drove the party down. It was then decided to regain the North Col. from the west *via* the Main Rongbuk Glacier and Camp 4 was re-established after a difficult ice climb on June 5th. On June 8th Camp 6 was established by Shipton and Smythe with seven porters and the following day an attempt was made to reach the summit. Conditions, however, proved impossible owing to deep monsoon snow, and the party was forced to retreat after reaching a height of 27,300 ft. A further attempt by Tilman and Lloyd on June 11th met with no more success and the expedition had to be abandoned.

Aerial Expedition.—An interesting side to the exploration of Everest was an aerial expedition undertaken in 1933 for the purpose of photographing the mountain from the air. This venture was financed by Lady Houston. Major L. V. S. Blacker, formerly of the Guides, was its leader and in charge of its survey work, Lord Clydesdale chief pilot, Flt. Lt. A. McIntyre second pilot and Major P. T. Etherton, its London manager. Two specially equipped aeroplanes, adaptations of the well-known Wapiti, were provided. A special point in their equipment was the provision of compressed oxygen for supply through gas masks to the aviators at high altitudes. The expedition was not permitted to fly across the Tibetan frontier, so as to circle Mt. Everest, but both machines successfully flew over the peak and several good photographs were taken of it. By permission of the Nepal Government a line of flight from Purnea, the base of the expedition, across Nepal territory to Mt. Everest, was taken and along this route some good survey photographs were obtained as far as the poor visibility at the time of the flight in April, permitted.

An interesting mountainflight of which details were published in 1933 was one from Risalpur to Gilgit and back, undertaken by the R.A.F. at Risalpur in the course of its routine duties in October, 1932. The expedition was commanded by Flt. Lt. Isaac and was made by five of the machines ordinarily in use by the Force. The distance from Risalpur by way of the Indus Valley and past Nanga Parbat to Gilgit is 286 miles. It was covered in 2 hrs. 20 mins. on the outward flight and in 2 hrs. 5 mins. on the return journey. From Gilgit the machines further proceeded upon flights over the Hunza, Nagar and Rakjot areas. Brilliant photographs of Nanga Parbat and Rakaposhi, as well as of other places of importance or interest, were taken. Such flights were frequently made by the R.A.F.

NANGA PARBAT

The year 1932 saw a well organised expedition to Mount Nanga Parbat. It was conducted by Dr. Merkl, of Munich, and included Lt. R. N. Frier, of the Gilgit Scouts, who acted as transport officer, an American Mr. Rand Herron and Miss E. Knowlton, of Boston, U.S.A. Several determined attempts to reach the summit of the mountain in August were brought to an end by the break-up of the weather before they attained success.

The Disaster of 1934.—In 1934 Herr Merkl returned to the attack with an even stronger party, which included a number of well-known German and Austrian mountaineers and Captains Frier and Sangster of the Indian Army as transport officers. Fatality early overtook the expedition, Herr Drexel dying of pneumonia. Owing to various delays, Camp IV was not established until the end of June. The party then proceeded to rush to the peak leaving only skeleton camps behind. Finally, after a height of 25,600 feet had been reached, and Camp VIII established at 24,800 feet, a terrible blizzard broke. The party retreated, but owing to the storm and ill-equipped camps retreat became a rout during which no fewer than nine lives were lost, Herren Merkl, Welzenbach and Wieland and six Darjeeling porters—men who had accompanied the 1933 Everest Expedition. Of the Europeans only the two Austrians Herren Schneieer and Aschenbrenner escaped whilst of the surviving porters, all of whom were frost-bitten, one or two spent a week without food or shelter.

In May 1937, another attempt was made to climb Nanga Parbat by a German expedition, headed by Dr. Wien. News reached Simla on June 20 that disaster had overtaken the expedition and subsequently it was learned that the entire party of climbers with the exception of one survivor, Dr. Luft, had perished. Eight of the nine members of the expedition were killed along with nine Sherpa porters. Mountaineering experts are of the opinion that the season was not very propitious for the ascent of the peak, which is considered to be more accessible in the autumn.

A further German attempt to climb Nanga Parbat was made in 1938 under the leadership of Dr. Paul Bauer. During the second half of July the party succeeding in reaching a height of over 23,000 ft. but were forced to retreat by bad weather. During the climb the bodies of Herr Willy Merkl and the porter Gay Lay, who perished in 1934 were discovered.

In 1939 another German expedition led by Herr Peter Aufshnaiter explored the Diamirai flank of Nanga Parbat.

Another expedition to the Karakorams took place in 1934 under the leadership of Dr. G. Dyhrenfurth. All four peaks of "Queen Mary" were climbed. The highest of these has been triangulated as 24,350 feet, but the party, state it to be more than 1,000 feet higher.

NANDA DEVI

In 1934 E. E. Shipton and H. W. Tilman, by a magnificent piece of exploration and mountaineering, succeeded in penetrating the hitherto impracticable Rishi Ganga to the glacier basin of Nanda Devi, thereby solving a problem that had exercised the minds of Himalayan mountaineers for many years and completing the work of pioneers such as Dr. T. G. Longstaff and Hugh Ruttledge. Shipton and Tilman also crossed from Badrinath to Gangotri *via* the Satopanth Pass and explored the head of the Gangotri Glacier. Profiting by the discovery of the route to the Nanda Devi basin an Anglo-American party, the leader of which was Tilman, successfully scaled Nanda Devi *via* its south-west ridge, on 29th August, 1936. Tilman and Odell being the climbers to reach the summit. This expedition was remarkable in that owing to the sickness of the porters the climbers had to carry their own camps up the mountain. This is the finest and most difficult peak yet climbed in the Himalayas.

In 1939 the first Polish expedition to visit the Himalayas succeeded in making the ascent of the East Peak of Nanda Devi. Unfortunately an accident led to the death of M. M. A. Karpinski and S. Bernadzikiewicz on Trisul above the Milam Glacier.

Lt.-Col. C. F. Stoehr, R.E., and Lt. D. M. Burn, R.E. lost their lives on 12th August 1932, while climbing on Panjtarni, near Pahlgam in Kashmir.

In 1935 an attempt to scale Peak 3 in the Karakoram Himalayas 25,400 ft. was made by Lieut. J. Waller, Lieut. J. Hunt, Dr. J. S. Carslaw and W. R. Brotherhood, R.A.F. A series of blizzards were experienced but the party reached a height estimated at 24,500 feet. There is no great difficulty between this point and the summit.

In the Autumn of 1935 the summit of Kabru was reached by Mr. C. R. Cooke who was accompanied to the foot of the final rocks by G. Schoberth who was forced to give up owing to a high altitude, cough and the risk of frost-bite. This ascent was made on November 18th, an unusually late date and is of great interest as proving that high Himalayan peaks can be climbed in early winter at least.

The 1936 French expedition to the Karakorams, like the Everest expedition, encountered very bad weather and accomplished little.

EAST HIMALAYAS

After Nanda Devi the most remarkable ascent of 1936 was that of Siniolchu (22,610 ft.), a peak once designated as the "embodiment of inaccessibility", in the Kanchenjunga range. This was made by a small German party under the leadership of Herr Paul Bauer. Siniolchu is one of the most beautiful peaks in the Himalayas.

In 1939, a party of Munich mountaineers, consisting of Herren Grob, Paidar and Schmaderer, made the first ascent of the Tent Peak (24,165 ft.), in the Kangchenjunga range and attempted the Twins Peak (24,115 ft.) but were defeated by bad weather.

Other ascents in Sikkim were made by Marco Pallis's party who attempted Simvu unsuccessfully and by C. R. Cooke and F. Spencer Chapman who ascended several peaks of over 20,000 feet including the Fluted Peak.

During the summer of 1937 a number of peaks were climbed, the most notable being Chomolhari 23,997 ft. by F. Spencer Chapman with one porter, and the Mana Peak 23,860 ft. by Captain P. R. Oliver and F. S. Smythe, the latter completing the ascent alone as Capt. Oliver was insufficiently acclimatised. Three other peaks of 21,400 ft., 21,500 ft. and 22,481 ft. were also climbed by Oliver and Smythe and attempts made on Nilkanta and Dunagiri which were frustrated by bad weather. They also explored a remarkable plateau above the Banke Glacier, discovered in May 1937 by Lieut. R. A. Gardiner of the Survey of India. In addition, Smythe with three Tibetan porters climbed seven peaks of the Zaskar Range among them the very difficult peak of Nilgiri Parbat, 21,264 ft. in July 1937. During this expedition Smythe came upon some remarkable tracks in the snow which the Tibetan porters believed were made by a Mirka or Abominable Snow Man. These tracks were afterwards identified as bear tracks by the natural history authorities in London.

Garhwal was visited in 1939 by a Swiss expedition led by M. Andre Roch and two fine peaks were scaled, Dunagiri and the Wedge Peak.

GODWIN AUSTEN (K2)

In 1938 C. S. Houston led an expedition to the Karakoram during the course of which a bold and determined attempt was made to climb K2, 28,250 ft. After failure to obtain a footing on the n. w. ridge, the party, which included several veteran Sherpa porters, ascended the n. e. ridge to a height of 26,000 ft.

A further attempt on K2 was made by an American party in 1939 but ended in disaster, Dudley Wolfe, and three Sherpa porters losing their lives in stormy weather high up the mountain.

Another expedition to the Karakorams was that undertaken by Capt. J. B. Harrison, Lieut. J. O. M. Roberts, R. A. Hodgkin, Dr. T. Graham Brown and Lieut. J. Waller together with Dr. G. A. J. Teasdale and Dr. Elizabeth Teasdale. The principal objective was Masherbrum, 25,660 ft. After establishing Camp 7 at 24,600 ft. Harrison and Hodgkin reached a height of about 25,000 ft. before being forced to retreat by bad weather. In descending to Camp 6 they were overtaken by a blizzard and forced to spend a night in the open as a result of which they were seriously frost-bitten. The devotion of the Sherpa porters prevented a more serious disaster.

Further exploration of the Badrinath, Kedarnath ranges at the sources of the Ganges as well as various ascents were made by a German expedition under the leadership of Dr. R. Schwarzgruber in the autumn of 1938. A little less than 10 years later (August, 1947) a Swiss party claimed that it had ascended Kedarnath.

The Survey of India are now very active and much work has been accomplished during the re-survey of Garhwal and Kumaon under the direction of Major Gordon Osmaston, whilst several thousand square miles of country have been mapped by Shipton and Tilman during their expeditions to the Shaksgam in 1937 and by Shipton during his expedition to the Karakoram in 1939.

The Himalayan Club was founded in 1928, at New Delhi with the object of encouraging and assisting Himalayan travel and exploration, and extending knowledge of the Himalayas through science, art, literature and sport. The initiation of this Club was due to Sir Geoffrey Corbett, one-time Secretary, Commerce Department of the Government of India, and to Major Kenneth Mason, M.C., R.E., one-time Assistant Surveyor-General. The headquarters of this club has now shifted to Calcutta, and most of the members have left the country.

1949 EXPEDITIONS

A party of four Swiss made an expedition into the Himalayas in 1949. The party consisted of Dr. Edward Wyss-Dunant, a biologist who was to make scientific observations; Adolf Ruby and Jacob Bargetzi, two Alpine guides; and Anne Liese Lohnar famous woman Alpinist who lead the party. They were later joined by Rene Dittert, veteran mountaineer and author. The expedition was organized by the Zurich headquarters of the Swiss Foundation for Alpine Research and was to spend six months in the unexplored wastes to the north of Kanchenjunga.

Mr. Tilman led a three-month expedition to the Nepal Himalayas. He was accompanied by Mr. Peter Lloyd, a well-known Everest climber. The object of the expedition was partly mountaineering and partly scientific. The scientific section which was financed by a number of British scientific societies consisted of a geologist Mr. C. S. Scott, and a botanist Mr. O. Polunin. The object of the expedition was to explore the Langtang Himal range, of which the highest peak is Langtang Lirung, 23,771 feet high.

A Norwegian group originally formed for an attempt on Nanga Parbat tried unsuccessfully to climb Tirach Mir in Chitral (Pakistan) in 1949 July.

A Sikkim Himalayan expedition sponsored by the Hikers' Club of Bombay made a trip of the 18,000 foot high Sebula Pass in Sikkim in May 1948. The party was under the leadership of Mr. R. P. Ghandhy.

This party covered a distance of 160 miles in three weeks and had some interesting mountaineering experiences. This was the second venture of the Hikers' Club, undertaken not so much to discover mysteries of the Himalayan heights, as to give training in mountaineering to youth.

SCIENTIFIC SURVEYS

THE **Botanical Survey** Department of the Government of India is awaiting reorganisation. Pending a new appointment the duties of the Director are distributed among (*i*) Dr. K. P. Biswas, M.A., D.Sc. (Edin.), F.R.S.E., F.N.I., Superintendent, Indian Botanic Garden, Calcutta and (*ii*) K. S. Srinivasan, B.Sc., M.Sc. (C. gr.), Curator, Industrial Section, Indian Museum. There is a staff at headquarters of one officer for systematic work and at the Indian Museum a Curator who is engaged in the development and maintenance of the Industrial Section.

The existence of the Botanical Survey, like that of the Geological Survey, has both a cultural and an economic justification. On general grounds it is obvious that a progressive Government should acquaint itself with the vegetable resources of the area it administers. The activities of the survey have much economic applicability—consisting as they do of investigations and researches into the systematics, limnology, distribution of plants, ecology and economic botany of plant life—the work accomplished in pure and applied botany at the Indian Botanic Garden during the last century and a half has exercised a profound and far-reaching influence upon the development of Agricultural Sciences and Forestry in India. The irreplaceable dried plant materials obtained by botanical explorations and preserved for more than one hundred and fifty-six years at the Herbarium of the Indian Botanic Garden, Calcutta, and more than 15,000 indigenous and exotic trees, shrubs and herbs cultivated in the open, prove to be most useful in dealing with such questions of considerable State importance as naturalisation of useful plants, introduction of new vegetable products into the country, the adaptation of raw produce to the requirements of manufacturing industry, land utilisation, preservation of rural areas, provision of national parks, drainage, sanitation and public health.

Identification and supply of specimens for research work is also carried out for assisting scientists in India and abroad.

The Industrial Section of the Indian Museum was founded for the exhibition of the economic resources of India (economic plants and plant products) and for serving as a Bureau of public information by diffusion of knowledge on economic Botany. The section maintains a public gallery, where plants and plant-products, such as food, fodder, spices, crude drugs and pharmaceutical products, vegetables, fibres, dyes and tans, oil and oil-seeds, gums and resins are displayed with descriptive labels.

GEOLOGICAL SURVEY

The Geological Survey of India is one of the oldest Geological Surveys in the world. The present department, now under the Government of India, Ministry of Works, Mines and Power, was founded in 1851. Its primary function is the preparation of a geological map of India, the basis on which all geological work, including an appraisal of the mineral deposits of the country, must rest.

Up to the beginning of the present century, most of the geological maps prepared were on the small scale of 1″ = 4 miles, many of the surveys being rather in the nature of geological reconnaissances with the object of obtaining a broad view of the geology of the country as a whole. During the last 40 or 50 years mapping has, wherever possible, been on a standard scale of 1″ = 1 mile, and in certain areas of special economic importance on even larger scales.

The importance of geological work in connection with India's industrial development is now widely realised and, to meet enhanced demands, the gazetted cadre of the Department is being increased as rapidly as possible. The present sanctioned strength is one Director, 9 Superintending Geologists (including 1 Deputy Director) 32 Geologists, 1 Petroleum Geologist, 75 Assistant Geologists, 1 Chief Geophysicist, 2 Geophysicists, 5 Assistant Geophysicists, 1 Geophysical Technician, 2 Chemists, 1 Physicist, 10 Assistant Chemists, 1 Mining Engineer, 1 Deputy Mining Engineer, 3 Assistant Mining Engineers, 1 Drilling Foreman, 4 Drillers, 1 Administrative Officer, 1 Artist and 1 Registrar. This staff is divided into (*i*) Headquarters Division, and (*ii*) Field Staff. The Headquarters Division, with its office in Calcutta, includes 1 Deputy Director and 1 Assistant Director, who are in charge of general administration, 1 Petrologist and 1 Curator with assistant who identify rocks and minerals submitted for examination by the public and superintend the Museum collections, 1 Palæontologist with assistants who is responsible for the identification of fossils and supervision of the fossil collections, and a chemical staff working in the Headquarters Laboratory. The office sections include, in addition to the general administrative sections, a Library section, a Publication section and a Drawing office, including map and process sections. Geological maps are prepared in the Drawing office and smaller maps are also printed there. The departmental Library is well-equipped with books and publications on geological and allied subjects. These may be consulted by the general public and in certain circumstances may be issued on loan.

The Field Staff, who spend about half of the year on geological fieldwork in any part of the Indian Union and the remaining 6 months at headquarters, are deputed to work either in the Field Circles or in the Specialist Sections, the former consisting at present of 6 Circles, *viz.*, (1) Western Circle for Bombay, Saurashtra, Kutch, Matsya and Rajputana; (2) Northern Circle for Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Himachal Pradesh and Patiala and East Punjab States Union; (3) Central Circle for Madhya Pradesh, Madhya Bharat and Vindhya Pradesh; (4) Eastern Circle for West Bengal, Bihar and Orissa; (5) Southern Circle for Madras and Travancore-Cochin; and (6) North Eastern Circle for Assam, Tripura and Sikkim. The Specialist Sections consist of 5 Specialist Sections, *viz.*, (1) Mineral Development Section; (2) Engineering Geology and Ground Water Section; (3) Geophysical Section; (4) Drilling Section; and (5) Exploratory Mining Section. The Field Circles each embrace one or several states, while the activities of the 5 Specialist Sections cover the whole of the Indian Union. Each Field Circle is under the supervision of a superintending geologist.

The object of the Field Circles is to continue the detailed geological mapping of the Indian Union. Officers in these Circles carry out preliminary investigations on such mineral occurrences as are found during the course of mapping, and also undertake the simpler types of engineering geology and water-supply investigations. They also supply the geological guidance necessary in any geophysical work which may be carried out in their areas. Officers of the Mineral Development Section are men who have specialised in the study of certain minerals, such as coal, mica, manganese, clays, gypsum, etc. Their work is of an all-India character and they operate and give advice to States wherever their specialised knowledge is of advantage. Similarly, the work of the Engineering Geology Section is of an all-India character, the members being highly specialised in the geological investigation of dam-sites, water-supply or any geological problems related to engineering. With the present small staff, this Section can take up only a limited number of investigations but it is hoped that it will be expanded to the required cadre as quickly as possible. It works in close co-operation with the Public Works Deptt. of the various State Governments. The Geophysical Section is at present working mainly on water-supply and engineering geology problems, and on the location of small mineral deposits. The Drilling and Mining Sections have just begun to function—additional staff is still being recruited. For work in connection with the testing of mineral deposits, exploring dam-sites and underground water resources, drilling equipment is being purchased.

Every year, before the programme of the field surveys is decided upon, the State Governments are asked to give details of geological investigations, mineral surveys or engineering enquiries which they desire to have carried out.

Recently a Mineral Information Bureau has been organised within the Geological Survey of India with the object of assisting and advising the public on the development and utilisation of mineral resources. The Bureau publishes a quarterly journal called *Indian Minerals* in which information is given in language which can be easily understood by the general public.

The results of the investigations and researches of the Department are published in—

(*i*) *Records* of the Geological Survey of India, which include the Annual Reports, Annual Mineral Review, and short papers. One volume of 4 parts is published annually. Every 5 years, a Quinquennial Review of the Mineral Production of India, is published as a separate volume of the *Records*.

(*ii*) *Memoirs* of the Geological Survey of India; in general each volume deals in detail with a *particular area or a particular mineral.*

(*iii*) *Palæontologia Indica*, which deals entirely with palæontological matters.

As a part of the *Records*, a series of Bulletins on particular minerals have been published in recent years. These Bulletins are intended to summarise the geological information available in India on commercial minerals. As each edition goes out of print, these Bulletins are revised and reprinted.

Thus to cater for the Mineral Industry, the Geological Survey of India publishes:

(*a*) An Annual Review of Mineral Production, the contents of which are mainly production statistics relating to the previous year.

(*b*) A Quinquennial Review of the Mineral Production of India, giving a review of the trend of the industry during the past 5 years.

(*c*) Bulletins, each giving a summary of geological knowledge on a particular mineral.

(*d*) A semi-popular quarterly journal known as the *Indian Minerals* which contains articles on minerals and mining in India, mineral statistics and abstracts of world mineral news, etc.

During the War, the publication of the *Records* (except Bulletins) and *Memoirs* was suspended, but this has now been resumed.

The advice of the Geological Survey of India is taken by the Central Government and others on all questions of mineral policy including grant of mineral concessions. To encourage and assist the teaching of geology in classes and colleges, the Department presents collections of minerals, rocks and fossils and gives lectures to students and at times to the public with a view to popularising the study of geology.

The geological functions of the Mineral Utilisation Branch of the Department, which was established as a War measure, have now been taken over by the Mineral Development Section.

The Strategic Branch, which was formed during the War with a view to providing geological information and advice for the Allied Forces, has, however, been dissolved.

SURVEY OF INDIA

The first authoritative map of India was published by D'Anville in 1752, when the exploration of the then unknown India was still largely in French hands. It was compiled from routes of solitary travellers and rough charts of the coast.

The Survey of India may be said to have been founded in 1767—ten years after the battle of Plassey—when Lord Clive formally appointed Major James Rennell, the first Surveyor General of Bengal, at that time the most important of the East India Company's possessions.

Rennell's maps were originally military reconnaissances and latterly chain surveys based on astronomically fixed points, and do not pretend to the accuracy of modern maps of India based on the rigid system of triangulation commenced at Madras in 1802 and since extended over and beyond India. Even now, however, the relative accuracy of these old maps makes them valuable in legal disputes, as for instance in proving that the holding of a Bengal landowner was a river area at the time of the Permanent Settlement of 1793, so that he is debarred from its benefits.

From these beginnings, this department has gradually become primarily responsible for all topographical surveys, explorations and the maintenance of geographical maps of the greater part of Southern Asia, and also for geodetic work.

Geodesy means the investigation of the size, shape and structure of the earth, and the geodetic work of the department consists of primary (or geodetic) triangulation, latitude, longitude and gravity determinations. From these the exact "figure" of the earth is obtained, whereby points fixed by triangulation can be accurately located on its curved surface. This system of fixed points holds together all topographical and revenue surveys, and the existence of such a system from the early days of the department has avoided the embarrassments caused in other countries where isolated topographical surveys have been started without a rigid framework, with the inevitable result that they could not be fitted together.

A geodetic framework is, therefore, essential in any large survey, but there are a number of other activities, all of them ultimately utilitarian which can be suitably combined with its execution, and the following are some of those which have been carried out in India :

Precise levelling for the determination of heights;
Tidal predictions and publication of Tide Tables for thirty-nine ports between Suez and Singapore ;
The Magnetic survey ;
Observation of the direction and force of Gravity;
Astronomical observations to determine latitude, longitude and time;
Seismographic and meteorological observations at Dehra Dun.

Indian geodesy has disclosed widespread anomalies in the gravitational attraction in the earth's crust, which have recently led to a reconsideration of the whole theory of isostasy.

In the past this department used to carry out the large scale revenue surveys for most of India, and conducted this work for central and eastern India and Burma till 1905.

Though revenue survey is primarily a record of individual property boundaries and is unconcerned with the surface features, ground levels and exact geographical position essential to a topographical survey, it was on the whole found economical to carry out both surveys together.

By 1905 however, the small scale topographical surveys compiled from the large scale revenue maps had fallen seriously in arrears, owing to the relatively slower pace and incompleteness of the latter, on which non-revenue-paying areas are normally shown blank.

An authoritative Survey Committee appointed by the Government of India considered the position in 1905. It was feared that a separation of the topographical and revenue surveys might result in a wasteful duplication of work and two overlapping but mutually discrepant systems of mapping. These objections were met by a ruling that the basis of both systems of survey should be identical and provided either by the Survey of India or under its supervision.

Subject to this principle, the remaining revenue surveys were handed over to the Provinces, who had always paid for them as part of the overhead charges of revenue collection, and the Survey of India was enabled to concentrate its energies on a complete new series of modern topographical maps in several colours on the 1-inch to 1-mile scale.

This new series had been rendered necessary by the natural demand for more detailed information to be shown on maps, especially as regards the portrayal of hill features by contours and proper classification of communications.

It was intended that the survey begun in 1905 should be completed in twenty-five years, and then revised periodically every thirty years. Owing however to the First World War and later retrenchments, only about three fourths of the programme had been completed by 1939, in spite of a reduction of scale for the less important areas.

Although from 1905 to 1939 new surveys were carried out every year, covering from thirty to sixty thousand square miles, an area roughly that of England, the maps of a large part of the country are still over 50 years old, printed mostly in black only, and have hill features shown by roughly sketched form lines or hachures ; such changes in town sites, canals and communications as have been embodied in them have not been surveyed, but are entered from data gathered from outside sources.

Owing to the serious financial situation in 1931, the establishment of the department was severely cut down and its annual expenditure halved.

During the Second World War, topographical survey work in India practically ceased, and since the conclusion of hostilities the main efforts of the department have been directed to large scale surveys for utilitarian purposes, such as dam sites and areas for irrigation, so that no appreciable progress has been made since 1939 in the 1905 topographical programme.

Surveys and records of international and State boundaries have always formed an important item of topographical work, and in recent years numerous Guide Maps have been published of important cities and military stations usually on scales of about 3 inches to the mile, where the 1-inch to 1-mile scale is inadequate.

The use of air photographs for survey purposes has become a normal practice and air survey is employed wherever it is considered advantageous to do so. The Survey of India has arranged with a company in India for the supply, on contract rates, of such photographs as it may require for survey purposes.

Air photographs in pairs for stereoscopic examination or made up in the form of mosaics are very often of value in inspecting sites prior to undertaking detailed survey operations, or may sometimes render these unnecessary.

So far as work for the Central Government will permit, this department is prepared to undertake local surveys on payment for States, municipal and other local authorities and private firms ; and will give advice as to the methods to be employed on such work. Surveys of the above description include :—

Forest and cantonment surveys ;

Riverain and irrigation surveys ;

Railway and city surveys ;

Surveys of tea gardens and mining areas.

The department is also equipped to carry out lithographic printing and can undertake such work on payment.

With the establishment of an International Civil Aviation Organization, India will be required to keep up its share of certain international series of civil aviation maps and charts.

The administration of the Survey of India is in the hands of the Surveyor General of India under the Ministry of Food and Agriculture. The headquarters office of the Surveyor General of India is at Mussoorie, U. P. and is under the administration of the Deputy Surveyor General. A technical office is attached to this which can provide estimates and make arrangements for any urgent work.

There are three regional Directors of Survey Circles with their headquarters at Shillong, Dehra Dun and Bangalore and a Director of Map Publication with his headquarters at Dehra Dun.

The more purely geophysical and mathematical activities of the department are dealt with by the Director, Geodetic and Training Circle, Dehra Dun.

There are map printing offices at Dehra Dun and Calcutta, the resources of which may be made use of by Government Departments and the public for printing special maps, illustrations for reports, patents, diagrams, etc.

During the war, the Department was almost entirely devoted to work in direct support of the war effort and many of the civil activities outlined above were interrupted or suspended. These activities have now been resumed and intensified particularly in relation to development projects.

ZOOLOGICAL SURVEY

The Zoological Survey of India was founded in 1916 on the basis of the Zoological and Anthropological Section of the Indian Museum which itself is a descendant of the Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal. The extensive zoological collections cared for and maintained by the Zoological Survey of India partly belong to the Asiatic Society and the Trustees of the Indian Museum and partly to the Central Government. Besides the collections, which are rich in types and unique specimens of Indian fauna, the greatest asset of the Survey is its extensive zoological library, probably the second best in the Commonwealth and certainly the best in Asia. Under certain rules and regulations, the books are sent out to *bona fide* research students thereby encouraging zoological research even in the remotest corners of India.

In recent years, it has supplied staff for the development and research in fisheries and for the Plant Protection Bureau of the Central Government. Even from a purely utilitarian aspect the potentialities and resources of the Survey are very much under-exploited.

The objects for which the Zoological Survey of India was founded are (*i*) to undertake faunistic studies so as to acquire all possible information on the geographical distribution of Indian animals, (*ii*) to maintain and add to the national zoological collections started nearly a century and a half ago by the Asiatic Society of Bengal, (*iii*) to maintain and develop the public

exhibits in the zoological galleries of the Indian Museum at Calcutta, (*iv*) to identify specimens as required by investigators in any part of the country and (*v*) to advise the Government on zoological matters.

The Zoological Survey of India publishes *Records* and *Memoirs of the Indian Museum* which are journals of Indian Zoology and recently the publication of the *Fauna of India* has also been transferred to the Survey. The Reports of the Zoological Survey of India published triennially are well illustrated and highly informative.

The Anthropological Section of the Survey was budded off in December 1945 and formed the nucleus of the Anthropological Survey of India. With it the publication of "Anthropological Bulletins" was also transferred to that Department.

Since its establishment, the Survey had to weather many heavy storms, such as the Inchcape Retrenchment Committee proposals of 1923, the 1931 Retrenchment Committee proposals which crippled it completely, the shifting of the Survey from Calcutta to Banaras in April-May 1942, the Varuna flood of September 1943, and the depletion of its staff to meet the needs of Fisheries Development and Research.

The Zoological Galleries, which suffered heavy damage due to occupation of the Indian Museum by Army authorities, are being reconstructed and restored. Some of them have been thrown open to the public since October 1947.

In 1948, the Government of India decided to re-transfer the Survey to Calcutta but as sufficient accommodation for housing the collections and offices could not be found in the compound of the Indian Museum, a large rented building (Jabakusum House, 34, Chittaranjan Avenue, Calcutta 12) was placed at its disposal. Library, Birds and Mammals Section and the office of the Curator, Zoological Galleries, are located in the Indian Museum while all other Sections and the main office are in the rented building. The Government proposes to put up a fire proof building for the Department which has no building of its own as and when funds permit.

Director.—Dr. S. L. Hora, D.Sc., F.R.S.E.

THE CURRENCY SYSTEM

THE history of Indian currency is fully summarised in the Reports of the Herschell, Fowler and Babington-Smith Committees, and the Chamberlain and Hilton Young Commissions. This historical retrospect is confined to a brief review of the facts and events of the past which chiefly influence the present and serve as a guide to the future.

By the Act of 1818 the East India Company made the silver rupee of 180 grains 11/12ths fine unlimited legal tender for South India. However the various Presidencies under the East India Company had rupees of different weights and fineness and the rupee of one Presidency was not legal tender in another. A uniform system of coinage was, therefore, found necessary which was obtained by the Act of 1835. The 1835 Gold and Silver Coinage Act was enacted so as to make the rupee unlimited legal tender and deprive the gold coins of their legal tender character throughout British India. But in order to avoid the embarrassing fluctuations in the rate of exchange with gold standard countries consequent on the severe slump in the silver market from 1872 onwards, it was decided in 1893, in accordance with the recommendations of the Herschell Committee, to close the mints to the free coinage of silver. The stoppage of silver coinage was followed by an appreciation of the rupee, and by 1898 it had reached the level of 1*s.* 4*d.*

Sterling Exchange Standard.—The Fowler Committee favoured the making of the British sovereign a legal tender and a current coin in India and recommended, at the same time, that "the Indian mints should be thrown open to the unrestricted coinage of gold on terms and conditions such as govern the three Australian branches of the Royal Mint." But Government's first attempt to introduce gold into circulation was not a success, and the Indian currency system developed in the years that followed along lines different from those foreseen in 1898. Gold never became a substantial part of the circulation. The standard thus evolved was commonly known as a gold exchange standard, although in truth in so far as it amounted to a definite standard at all, it was a standard of sterling exchange.

The Chamberlain Commission, appointed in April 1913 abandoned the ideal of a gold standard based on a gold currency and accepted in its place an exchange standard with an excrescent currency of sovereigns not essential to the working of the system. As the First World War broke out soon after no action was taken on these recommendations. The war of 1914-18 put the currency system of India, in common with those of other countries, to a severe test.

The Babington-Smith Committee was appointed in 1919 when the rate was 1*s.* 8*d.* The Committee recommended the stabilisation of exchange at 2*s.* gold. An important member of the Committee, Mr. Dadiba Dalal of Bombay, differed from the majority and submitted a minority report.

The majority's recommendations were accepted by the Secretary of State. The publication of the Report in 1920 coincided with a keen demand for remittances to London, and steps were at once taken to maintain the new exchange rate of 2*s.* gold recommended by the Committee by the offer of reverse councils at a rate founded on that ratio, allowance being made for the depreciation of sterling in terms of gold, as shown by the dollar-sterling exchange. The rates for reverse councils offered by the Government thus varied from 2*s.* 3-29/32*d.* sterling to 2*s.* 10-27/32*d.* sterling. By the Indjan Coinage Amendment Act of 1920, the sovereign was made legal tender at Rs. 10. The attempt to hold the rate of 2*s.* gold was not successful, and the Government of India thereupon tried, with effect from June 24, 1920, to maintain it at 2*s.* sterling. This attempt also failed and was abandoned on September 28. The Government of India at this period were unable to contract currency in India at the pace at which world prices were falling. All they could do was to avoid further inflation and to effect some measure of contraction. This was insufficient to arrest the falling tide of exchange, which early in 1921 fell below the low level of 1*s.* 3*d.* sterling and 1*s.* gold. The 2*s.* ratio, passed in 1920, remained on the statute book and was ineffective for purposes of tender of gold to the currency office. Government sold £55 millions of reverse councils before abandoning their effort to stabilise exchange at the new ratio, the loss on this account being Rs. 35 crores.

Currency was contracted to the tune of Rs. 31½ crores in 1920-21 and the process was continued in the following two years by the transfer of sterling securities held in London to the Secretary of State's cash balance and by the discharge of the Indian Treasury Bills held in the reserve. The tide consequently definitely turned by January 1923; and Government exchange recovered to 1*s.* 4*d.* sterling, and showed a general tendency to move upward. It reached the level of 1*s.* 6*d.* sterling in October 1924 at which time it was equivalent to about 1*s.* 4*d.* gold. From that time till March 1926, the upward tendency of exchange continued, but it was prevented from rising above 1*s.* 6*d.* by free purchases of sterling on the part of Government. Meanwhile sterling was restored to parity with gold about the middle of 1925 and the rupee was in the neighbourhood of 1*s.* 6*d.* gold when the Hilton Young Commission was appointed in 1926.

GOLD BULLION STANDARD

The Hilton Young Commission held the view that "the currency of the country must be linked with gold in a manner that is real and conspicuously visible." It, therefore, recommended a gold bullion standard whereby an obligation should be imposed by statute on the currency authority to buy and sell gold without limits at rates determined with reference to a fixed gold parity of the rupee but in quantities of not less than 400 fine ounces, no limitation being imposed as to the purpose for which the gold is required. It would establish the principle that gold is the standard of Indian currency at a fixed ratio. Simultaneously it recommended that the legal tender quality of the sovereign and the half-sovereign should be removed.

In a minute of dissent, Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas said that it was not possible to improve upon the ideal of a gold standard based on gold reserves. He warned that the recommendation of his colleagues to stabilise the rupee at 1*s.* 6*d.*, if accepted, would disturb the country's economy and expressed his view that the Executive had already made up its mind to work up to 1*s.* 6*d.* ratio long before the appointment of the Commission.

The monetary standard created by the Act of 1927 was a sterling exchange standard with the proviso that it was like the gold exchange standard so long as sterling did not go off the gold parity. Moreover, it would have been a gold standard if Government had exercised the option of offering gold in exchange for rupees. While it retained most of the old features condemned by the Commission namely the conversion of silver rupee into paper currency, the duplication of reserves and the separation of currency from credit control, it represented an improvement over the pre-1916 standard by ensuring a statutory gold parity for the rupee and a statutory obligation on Government with regard to the purchase of gold and sale of gold or sterling.

The main controversy in the following years centred on the exchange ratio. From the beginning, however, Government were finding it necessary to take special measures to maintain the ratio of 1*s.* 6*d.* owing to its weakness. On February 10, 1927 when the Imperial Bank desired to borrow Rs. 2 crores from Government, it was charged seven per cent. as against the bank rate of six per cent. This created the impression that Government had changed their regulations under the Indian Paper Currency Amendment Act of 1923 without making a public announcement and that this had been done as a part of the measures to sustain the rupee exchange at 1*s.* 6*d.* Government had to remit about £7 millions between February 15 and March 31, 1930 during which sterling bills were difficult to obtain from the market and Government decided to raise the price of money in India by raising the interest on the emergency currency to be given to the Imperial Bank from 7 to 8 per cent. on February 14, 1930. The position deteriorated further by November 1930 owing to rumours about the change in the ratio, and sterling to the tune of £5,650,000 was sold between November 1930 and March 1931 on speculative account. The weakness of the exchange was followed by contraction of currency during the same period. The net contraction of note currency during the five years ending 1931 was Rs. 102½ crores.

THE CRISIS OF 1931

By 1931 the situation had become critical owing to the economic depression resulting in the precipitate fall of agricultural prices, slump in trade and a serious deterioration in the budgetary position of the Government of India. The ways and means position was attempted to be buttressed by short term loans in the form of treasury bills which mounted upto Rs. 83.4 crores by August 1931 and thereafter by taxation and retrenchment. The flight of capital from India could not be checked and Government had to sell £11 millions sterling to maintain the ratio at the lower exchange point between August and September 19, 1931.

On September 21, 1931, the pound sterling was divorced from gold; India had a Currency Ordinance; and the Secretary of State announced Government's currency policy in terms which were not in conformity with the Currency Ordinance. The confusion thus created necessitated the declaration of moratorium for three days in respect of banks and this unprecedented event was followed by the issue on September 24 of the Gold and Sterling Regulation Ordinance of 1931. The first Ordinance sought to suspend the operation of Section 5 of the Currency Act of 1927 relating to Government's obligation to sell gold or sterling at rates fixed therein in view of the emergency, while the Secretary of State made it clear before the Federal Structure Sub-Committee in London that "it has been decided to maintain the present currency standard on a sterling basis."

The Indian Gold and Sterling Sales Regulation Ordinance of 1931 had the object of maintaining the sterling paper standard by strict regulation of dealings in foreign exchange and the prevention thereby of the export of capital by nationals. The Imperial Bank of India was authorised to allocate exchange for certain definite purposes such as normal trade needs, excluding the import of silver and gold, contracts done before September 21 and for reasonable personal and domestic purposes. The linking of the rupee with sterling involving the loss of its freedom was strongly opposed by the public. Happily, however, the apprehensions did not materialise; but the change ensured the flow of trade between India and the British Empire while placing India at a disadvantage in respect of her trade with countries having a gold standard. An outstanding feature of our trade thereafter was the unusual exports of gold.

Rupee Unlinked.—In terms of the Anglo-American Loan Agreement signed in July, 1946, the United Kingdom undertook to negotiate with the holders of the sterling balances for the settlement of these balances and to make currently-earned sterling multilaterally convertible for current transactions, within one year of the signature of the Agreement. Consequent on this obligation to negotiate settlement of the sterling balances, a delegation from the United Kingdom visited India in February for a preliminary discussion.

Another factor conditioning the background to foreign exchange relationships was the establishment of the International Monetary Fund and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. Consequent on India's membership of the Fund and the fixing of par values in accordance with the Articles of the Fund Agreement, sterling ceased to be the sole determinant of the external value of the rupee. The convertibility of the rupee into other currencies was therefore provided, for by the enactment of the Reserve Bank of India (Second Amendment) Act, 1947, which was passed by the Central Legislature in April, 1947. The amendment repealed Sections 40 and 41 of the Reserve Bank of India Act which had obliged the Bank to buy and sell foreign exchange at such rates and on such terms and conditions as the Central Government may determine from time to time in conformity with their obligations as a member of the Fund.

DEVALUATION

Closely following the decision of Britain to devalue sterling in terms of the U.S. dollar, the Government of India announced on September 20, 1949 the devaluation of the rupee to the same extent, thereby changing the par value of the rupee in terms of the U.S. currency from 30·225 cents to 21 cents and in terms of gold from 0·268601 to 0·186621 grammes of fine gold to the rupee. The stock, bullion and commodity markets, banks, Government treasuries and other financial institutions were officially closed on September 19, 20, and 21 and the new exchange rates, therefore, came into force only after the end of the holidays.

With a view to meeting the situation, the Reserve Bank advised bankers to discourage advances for speculative transactions and asked scheduled banks to submit a daily return of advances of Rupees one lakh and over. In order to check the rise in internal prices, Government issued an ordinance assuming powers to impose export duties on vegetable oils, oilseeds, vanaspati, shellac, steel and tobacco. This was followed in October by a comprehensive eight-point programme, which covered (1) the formulation of a new pattern of trade designed to reduce to the minimum the country's expenditure on foreign exchange, (2) scaling down of budgetary expenditure by Rs. 40 crores in 1949-50 and at least Rs. 80 crores in the following year, (3) reduction of about 10 per cent. in the retail prices of essential commodities, (4) employment of India's bargaining capacity for the purpose of bringing down to reasonable levels prices of industrial materials imported from countries whose currencies have appreciated in relation to Indian currency, (5) intensification of the drive to promote national savings and investment in industry and provision of suitable Governmental assistance for the extension of banking facilities to rural areas, (6) extension of facilities for voluntary settlement of taxes, payable in respect of war profits, (7) imposition of customs duties on articles exported to hard currency areas, and (8) curbing of speculative price increases by legislative and other measures and by regulation of credit facilities.

Pakistan, although a member of the sterling area, decided not to devalue her currency with the result that her currency appreciated both in terms of the Indian rupee and the pound sterling and her trade with India came consequently to a standstill. On February 27, 1951, however, India recognised the Par Value of the Pakistani rupee under the Indo-Pakistani trade pact. The details will be found in the chapter on Trade.

MONEY SUPPLY

The rate of wartime expansion in money supply in undivided India, after reaching its peak in 1942-43, witnessed a progressive decline during the subsequent war years, the additions to money supply being 35·1 per cent. in 1943-44, 18·7 per cent. in 1944-45, and 13·4 per cent. in 1945-46. Money supply increased during the years 1939-40 to 1941-42 by Rs. 361 crores; by Rs. 465 crores in 1942-43; and by Rs. 981 crores during the following three years and stood at Rs. 2,179 crores at the end of 1945-46. In the following year, with an increase of Rs. 31 crores to Rs. 1,358 crores or 2·3 per cent. in currency with the public, and with deposit money remaining unchanged at Rs. 852 crores, the upward trend in money supply, in a process of adjustment to peacetime conditions, would appear to have been halted in the first post-war year. Money supply stood at Rs. 2,210 crores at the end of March 1947, showing a rise of only 1·4 per cent. This was mainly a result of the curtailment of the defence expenditure incurred by the Government of India on their own account as well as on behalf of Allied Governments.

The process of adjustment continued in the first half of 1947-48, which also coincided with the slack season period, money supply receding by Rs. 70 crores to Rs. 2,140 crores at the end of September 1947. This trend, however, received a temporary set-back during the latter half of 1947-48, when money supply recorded a sharp rise of Rs. 176 crores or 8 per cent. Apart from the requirements of the busy season, the rise was partly due to the heavy governmental outlays following the partition and partly to the gradual widening of the free sector of internal trade following the adoption by Government of the policy of decontrol in December 1947. In the result, money supply showed a net rise of Rs. 106 crores during 1947-48, rising from Rs. 2,210 crores at the end of March 1947 to Rs. 2,316 crores at the end of March 1948.

The downward trend in money supply with the public in the Indian Union noticed in 1948-49 continued in the following year. It showed a net contraction of Rs. 18.4 crores during the year as against a net contraction of Rs. 43.3 crores in 1948-49. This contraction was made up of a fall in deposit money of Rs. 17.8 crores and of Rs. 0.6 crore in the currency with the public. The fall in the money supply during the slack season of the year under review was more than in the corresponding period of 1948-49, the respective figures being Rs. 121.2 crores and Rs. 35 crores. The expansion of money supply during the busy season amounted to Rs. 102.8 crores as compared with a decline of Rs. 8.7 crores during the same period in the preceding year. This reflected in part the effect of a net accrual of sterling to the Reserve Bank of India.

Note Circulation

On the basis of figures adjusted, notes in circulation in the Indian Union show a net contraction of Rs. 7.84 crores in 1948-49; this was the first year since 1937-38 when the note circulation declined. The year under review witnessed a further net contraction of Rs. 5.84 crores or an average monthly decline of Rs. 0.49 crore as against Rs. 0.65 crore in 1948-49. This was the net result of a return of Rs. 108.09 crores during the period May to October 1949, and an absorption of Rs. 102.25 crores during April 1949, and November 1949 to March 1950. The highest monthly return during 1949-50, as in the previous year, was in July when it reached a record level of Rs. 45.48 crores as against Rs. 34.88 crores in July 1948. The highest monthly absorption of Rs. 31.07 crores was in December 1949 as against the peak of Rs. 16.52 crores for 1948-49 recorded in December 1948.

Normally, the trends in note circulation reflect the incidence of the busy and slack seasons. The seasonal ebb and flow of currency, which during the war years had been submerged by large additions to currency, reappeared in 1946-47 and has tended to become more pronounced since. During the year under review, the return in note circulation in the slack season, April to September, was Rs. 89·45 crores as compared with a return of Rs. 54.62 crores in the slack season of 1948-49. In addition to the seasonal factor, the magnitude of the return in 1949-50 is attributable to the net sales of sterling by the Reserve Bank to meet the deficit in the balance of payments, which resulted from a liberalisation of import controls in July 1948 as part of the Government's anti-inflation policy. The absorption during the busy season October 1949 to March 1950, was substantially higher at Rs. 83.61 crores as against Rs. 46.78 crores during the busy season of 1948-49. This reflects in part a marked improvement in the country's balance of payments position noticed since devaluation. The wider seasonal variations in currency, therefore, appear to correspond somewhat to the greater amplitude of fluctuations in the balance of payments.

Since 1946, Rs. 10 denomination has accounted for the largest percentage of the total note circulation of the current denominations though it declined from 44.5 per cent. at the end of 1948 to 43.5 per cent. at the end of 1949. The share of Rs. 100 notes increased slightly from 37.9 per cent. to 38.1 per cent. during the same interval. Rupees 100 notes had constituted the largest production of the total note circulation since 1944 until the denomination in January 1946 of notes of the denominations of Rs. 500\and above. The proportion fell from 45.5 per cent. at the close of 1945 to 38.9 per cent. by the close of 1946; during the same interval the share of Rs. 10 denomination rose from 39.0 per cent. to 43.4 per cent. Since then, Rs. 100 denomination has constituted the second largest in the total circulation. The share of Rs. 5 denomination increased from 15.1 per cent. at the end of 1948 to 16.1 per cent. at the end of 1949 whereas at the end of 1945 it was 14.1 per cent. Among the lower denominations, Rs. 2 notes presented about 2.5 per cent. of the total circulation since 1947 as against 1.3 per cent. at the end of 1945 and 2.0 per cent. at the end of 1946. As between the Government of India one-rupee. notes and the Bank notes of Rs. 2 denomination the public continued to show a marked preference for the former.

Circulation of Rupee Coin

Since 1st November, 1943, when the standard rupee coin ceased to be legal tender, the "rupee coin" circulation in India has comprised (1) the Government of India one-rupee notes* (issued from July 1940), (2) the quaternary silver rupees (issued from December 1940 upto the end of May 1946), and (3) the nickel rupees (issued from June 1947). These coins were also in circulation in Pakistan at the time of the termination of the Joint Monetary Arrangements with that country on 30th June, 1948. In terms of Section 3 of Part IV of the Pakistan (Monetary System and Reserve Bank) Order 1947 (as amended), the India coins are, however, being withdrawn from circulation by the State Bank of Pakistan and certain categories of them as specified in the order returned in instalments, to the Reserve Bank of India. The amount returned and adjusted in 1948-49 was *nil* and in 1949-50 Rs. 3.92 crores. Pending the completion of this process, accurate figures of the circulation of rupee coin in the Indian Union will not be available.

It will be seen that during 1949-50, there was a net absorption amounting to Rs. 2.29 crores as against a net return of Rs. 4.31 crores in 1948-49. This was brought about by a total absorption of Rs. 8.39 crores during May and June 1949, and November 1949 to March 1950, which was partially offset by a total return of Rs. 6.10 crores during the remaining five months of the year (April and July to October).

---

* In terms of the Currency Ordinance of 24th July, 1940 (No. IV of 1940) issued by the Government of India, these notes are deemed to be included in the expression "rupee coin" for all the purposes of the Reserve Bank of India Act, 1934.

During the year, the Reserve Bank received from the Government of India one-rupee notes and coin for Rs. 5 crores, under Section 36(2) of the Reserve Bank of India Act, against payment of legal tender value.

Small Coin

Since 1944-45, when the wartime demand for small coin had carried the figure of absorption to a record level of Rs. 19.20 crores, there has been a sharp decline in the demand for this form of currency. In 1948-49, the absorption was nominal, being Rs. 24 lakhs, while in 1949-50, for the first time since 1930-31, a net return of Rs. 2.16 crores has emerged, which resulted from a return of Rs. 2.49 crores over the larger part of the year and an absorption of Rs. 0.33 crore during April and May 1949.

Denomination-wise, there was a return of Rs. 67.01 lakhs in half-rupees and Rs. 56.24 lakhs in four-annas as against an absorption of Rs. 18.94 lakhs and Rs. 6.71 lakhs, respectively, in 1948-49. The denominations of two-annas and one-anna, which had shown returns of Rs. 12.60 lakhs and Rs. 13.55 lakhs in 1948-49, showed further returns of Rs. 47.47 lakhs and Rs. 57.79 lakhs, respectively, during 1949-50. In contrast half-anna and single pice registered an absorption of Rs. 1.40 lakhs and Rs. 11.52 lakhs, respectively, the corresponding absorption in the preceding year being Rs. 9.24 lakhs and Rs. 15.45 lakhs, respectively. The demand for single pice continues to be appreciable.

During the year under review, the amount of standard silver small coins returning from circulation in the Indian Union is small, being Rs. 4 lakhs. The total amount of these coins returned from circulation in undivided India since 1941-42 (when they were replaced by quaternary coins of one-half fineness) upto 1947-48 amounted to Rs. 45 lakhs. The meagre return of these coins is probably attributable to the prevailing high price of silver, which has remained above the theoretical melting point of the standard silver coin since August 1943.

Quaternary half-rupee and quarter-rupee coins of one-half fineness were issued for the first time in August 1940 and May 1940, respectively, with a view to minimising the cost of coinage. The total absorption of these coins, since their issue up to the end of March 1947, aggregated Rs. 39.22 crores. In view of inadequate supplies of silver, the current level of silver prices in India and the obligation to return, in kind the 226 million ounces of lend-lease silver received from the United States between 1943 and 1945, the Government of India discontinued from May 1946 the issue of quaternary half-rupee and quarter-rupee coins (as well as quaternary rupee coins) and decided to replace them by pure nickel coins. During 1947-48, the return from circulation of quaternary half-rupee and quarter-rupees amounted to Rs. 1.14 crores in undivided India, and Rs. 1.83 crores and Rs. 2.66 crores, respectively, in 1948-49 and 1949-50 in the Indian Union.

The absorption, in the Indian Union, of the nickel half-rupee and quarter-rupee coins, which were first issued in May 1946, amounted to Rs. 1.50 crores in 1949-50 and Rs. 2.11 crores in 1948-49, and in undivided India Rs. 6.39 crores during 1946-47 and 1947-48.

Seasonal Fluctuations

During the year under review, there was a further contraction of Rs. 5.71 crores in legal tender currency (including small coin) in circulation in the Indian Union. The total contraction since 1948-49 (which was the first year since 1938-39 to show a net contraction) amounted to Rs. 18 crores. During the war and post-war years up to 1947-48 there was continuous absorption of currency, the total amounting to about Rs. 13,63 crores.

The commencement or the duration of the busy season varies in the different parts of the country, depending on the harvesting of the region's principal crops. Broadly speaking, the busy season, with its absorption of currency, usually begins in August, September or October —usually in September—and ends in December, January or February, with an average duration of five to six months; the slack season, when currency returns, begins usually in January, February or March and extends upto July, August or September, the average duration being six or seven months.

In pre-war years, there was a fair regularity in the commencement and duration of the busy and slack seasons. During war years, the tide of currency expansion resulting from steadily growing governmental outlays largely submerged the seasonal ebb and flow of currency. With the termination of the war, signs of seasonal variations reappeared which seemed to have fully asserted themselves by 1947-48. Other factors also continued to influence changes in the volume of money. The absorption, during the busy season of 1947-48, of Rs. 127.73 crores (which is the largest post-war absorption) probably also embodies the effect of governmental deficit financing, particularly after the Partition. The absorption during 1948-49 was on a smaller scale for each of the busy season months (October 1948 to April 1949) than the corresponding months of 1947-48. In 1949-50, during the slack season (May to October 1949), the return of currency, which amounted to Rs. 113.30 crores, was the largest seasonal contraction on record. This is probably, in part, attributable to the payments deficits which followed the progressive liberalisation of import restrictions from July 1948 to May 1949, the import licences then issued remaining effective for some time after a reversal of the policy. Owing partly to the difficulties which arose in regard to the trade with Pakistan, the busy season of 1949-50 began later than usual, the net absorption of currency not appearing until the middle of November 1949. Since then the outward flow of currency has been on a substantial scale. To the seasonal demand was added the effect of the export surplus leading to large net purchases of sterling by the Reserve Bank, which followed devaluation. The total absorption from November 1949 to March 1950 amounted to Rs. 98.15 crores.

General Trends

In pre-war years, broadly speaking, the note circulation and demand deposits tended to show opposite trends; in the slack season, the note circulation fell and deposits rose, while, in the busy season, note circulation rose and demand deposits fell. During war years, these trends were submerged by the inflationary expansion of money, both currency and credit moving upward. During the busy season, however, there was a relatively greater increase in the note circulation than in demand deposits and *vice versa* in the slack season. After the termination of the war, the pre-war movements in the note circulation and demand deposits began to reappear, though not with the same uniformity. In the first full post-war year, 1946-47, there was a reduction of 3 per cent in the note circulation and a rise of 7 per cent in deposits during the slack season, while, during the busy season, there was an expansion of 5 per cent in the note circulation and a contraction of 9 per cent in demand deposits. In 1947-48, however, the busy season witnessed a rise of 7 per cent in deposits, owing partly to expansion of credit by banks and partly to governmental disbursements. The normal seasonal trends re-emerged in 1948-49.* During the busy season of the year the note circulation increased by Rs. 47 crores and deposits decreased by Rs. 57 crores, while during the slack season, the note circulation fell by Rs. 55 crores and deposits rose by Rs. 19 crores.

* Figures from 1948-49 relate to the Indian Union.

During the year under review, the busy season showed an expansion of Rs. 84 crores in the note circulation, but deposits remained virtually unchanged. In the slack season, the note circulation fell by Rs. 89 crores and deposits by Rs. 37 crores.

Agreement with Foreign Countries

When the Financial Agreement with the United Kingdom was extended in July 1948 for a period of three years, it was agreed that the amount of £80 million lying at that time to the credit of No. 1 Account would be available for current expenditure during the year ended June 30, 1949 and that a sum of £40 million should be released in each of the subsequent twelve-month periods. But as a result of unexpectedly heavy imports there was a considerable running down of the balances in No. 1 Account. The United Kingdom, therefore, agreed to permit advance transfers of releases for subsequent periods and also additional releases to enable India to meet her outstanding commitments under O. G. L. XI which was cancelled in May 1949. The agreement provided for a release of £81 million for the year ended June 1949 for which there was no provision in the previous agreement and a further release of a sum not exceeding £50 million to meet the liabilities entered into under the old O. G. L. XI prior to its cancellation. The annual releases for each of the twelve-month periods ending June 1950 and June 1951 were raised from £40 million to £50 million.

The previous year's agreement had fixed a limit of $60 million for India's drawings on the Sterling Area Central Reserves during the year ended June 1949. It was assumed that the hard currency deficit for the year would amount to $160 million and that $100 million would be raised by purchases from the I.M.F. Actually the deficit was higher and as a result of negotiations, which were merged with the discussions of the Commonwealth Finance Ministers' Conference, no quantitative limitation was imposed in the Financial Agreement of August 1949 on India's drawings on Central Reserves; India was re-admitted to full membership of the sterling area. An obligation which India assumed in common with other member countries as a result was to reduce her expenditure on dollar imports in the year July 1949-June 1950 to 75 per cent of that in 1948.

The payments agreement with Pakistan, which was concluded in 1949-50 and was due to expire on June 30, 1949, was extended for one more year. The main provisions of the principal agreement which permitted unrestricted transfer of funds on both current and capital account and provided for the maintenance of parity between the two rupees, were retained in the renewed agreement. Under the principal agreement, the maximum amount of sterling which may be claimed by the creditor country from the No. 1 Account of the deficit country, whenever its balances with the latter exceeded Rs. 15 crores, had been fixed at £7½ million. In the new agreement this limit was raised to £15 million. The Reserve Bank of India notified on August 30, 1949 that the transfer of any securities expressed in a foreign currency to a resident of Pakistan, of any acceding State, or of Hyderabad, would no longer be permissible without its special authorization. In September 1949 it notified that imports from Pakistan (or Afghanistan) of Government of India one rupee notes and coins in excess of Rs. 5 per person were prohibited.

The facilities afforded by the Reserve Bank of India for the purchase and sale of Pakistan notes were suspended on September 20, 1949 following the devaluation of the Indian rupee and Pakistan's decision not to devalue its rupee. The Pakistan notes purchased and sold by the Reserve Bank of India from April 1, 1949 to September 20, 1949 amounted to Rs. 12,612 and Rs. 13,26,694 respectively, the aggregate

amounts purchased and sold since July 1946 and September 25, 1948 being Rs. 1,03,00,918 and Rs. 71,15,708 respectively. In the middle of March 1950 arrangements were made to exchange on Government account Pakistan notes and coins into Indian money at a par rate for the benefit of evacuees from East Bengal.

Following the recognition of the par value of the Pakistani rupee on February 26, 1951, the Reserve Bank of India extended the Foreign Exchange Regulation Act, 1947, to cover Pakistan and Afghanistan. Under this Act, remittances to Pakistan and Afghanistan may be made through the medium of authorised dealers in foreign exchange. Restrictions have also been imposed on the import and export of currency, jewellery, bullion and securities. The Reserve Bank will buy from and sell to authorised dealers in India Pakistani rupees for ready transactions at Rs. 69-8-3 and Rs. 69-6-6 respectively.

Exchange Control

There was no basic change in the system of Exchange Control during 1949-50 except for minor alterations in some of the regulations. With effect from April 1, 1949 the French Possessions in India (with the exception of Chandernagore) came to be treated as foreign territory. During the year restrictions were placed on the import of currency notes from Burma. On September 10, 1949 restrictions covering both India and Burma currency were imposed by which imports of Rs. 100 per person from Burma were prohibited ; but a higher import limit of Rs. 200 was fixed for persons travelling by the Lido route.

A decision taken by the Indian Exchange Control in December 1949 was to relax the restrictions on security transactions by Indian nationals laid down in Sections 5(1) (e) and (f) and 13 of the Foreign Exchange Regulation Act. In terms of this decision, general permission was granted to Indian nationals resident in India to deal in the shares of sterling companies operating in India with two registers—one in London and the other in India—provided payments were made in rupees and the shares were on the Indian register. Nationals of India were also permitted to acquire sterling shares of such companies in the London market subject to the condition that the shares had been transferred to the Indian register before they were sent out to India.

Of interest to India were also some changes in the United Kingdom's payments system with certain countries during the year. In April 1949, there was a change in the procedure for making sterling payments to Japan on account of commercial transactions such as commission, freight and insurance. These can be paid to the credit of any Japanese account and need not be passed through the SCAP sterling accounts. Payments for the purchase and sale of goods were, however, to be settled through the SCAP account as before. Following the exclusion of French Somali Coast and Lebanon from the French Monetary Area on May 13, 1949, transfers were permitted from one French Somali account to another French Somali account as also from one Lebanese account to another. Payments for exports from India to French Somali Coast must be received in Djibouti francs (currency of the French Somali Coast which was convertable into U. S. dollars) or in sterling from an appropriate French Somali account or in rupees from the account of a bank in French Somali Coast. Payments for exports to Lebanon from India must be received either in sterling or in rupees from the account of a bank in Lebanon.

As a result of the payments agreement between the U.K. and Czechoslovakia, Czech crowns were excluded from the list of specified currencies with effect from August 23, 1949. All financial transactions with Czechoslovakia would, therefore, have to be concluded in sterling through the medium of the appropriate sterling accounts in London.

Following devaluation, the basic allowances of foreign exchange for residents in India for travel were halved in the case of soft currency countries and countries in the vicinity of India. The limits fixed for travel to hard currency countries of Europe and Japan were fixed at £100 per adult and £50 per minor to be deducted from the basic scale of £450 per adult and £225 per minor applicable to soft currency countries. Sweden is treated as a soft currency country.

In April 1950 the rates quoted for sale and purchase of foreign currency notes by authorised dealers were standardised.

The Foreign Exchange regulation Act, 1947, was amended by Parliament in the budget session of 1950. As a result, the transfer of control of a company from resident of India to resident of U. K. and the granting of loans and over-drafts to persons resident in U. K. and to companies other than banks controlled by such persons require the prior approval of the Reserve Bank.

In terms of the agreement between the United Kingdom, Norway, Sweden and Denmark, London Control decided in May to extend in general the same treatment to Scandinavian countries as is accorded by them to the sterling area countries. India has got full exchange control with other sterling area countries except that capital transfers to and from them are freely allowed. In view of the agreement, the Government of India decided to allow capital transfers to and from Scandinavian countries. In the same month Paraquay was removed from the list of hard currency countries and Liberia was included in it.

On October 2, 1950 the Canadian Government decided to permit the exchange rate for the Canadian dollar to fluctuate. The Reserve Bank, therefore, advised authorised dealers to book their transactions in this currency on the basis of London Control rates quoted from time to time. Later the dealers were advised to make their own arrangements for covering the transactions in view of the freedom given to U. K. dealers by London Control.

During November it was decided to treat Switzerland as a soft currency country. With effect from December 6, 1950 Denmark has been added to the list of countries to which the transferable account arrangement applies. On the same day the Dutch East Indies guilder was removed by London Control from the list of specified currencies. Consequently, payment for export from India to the Republic of Indonesia and Dutch New Guinea must be received either in sterling from an appropriate account or in rupees from the account of a bank in these territories.

Balance of Payments

Deficits in India's balance of payments were very rare occurrences in the pre-war period but they have become chronic during the post-war years. During 1946 and 1947 the deficits for undivided India were Rs. 28.3 crores and Rs. 39.5 crores respectively. In 1948 the deficit for India without Pakistan amounted to Rs. 143 crores and reached the peak of Rs. 156.8 crores in 1949 and this too, after taking into account the improved conditions which came to prevail during the last quarter of the year, *i.e.* after devaluation. The large deficits for recent years, however, have to be interpreted with caution. A part of this deficit was necessary to enable absorption of the release of sterling balances ; but the presence of an element of disequilibrium in the situation was indicated by the fact that since the middle of 1948 the deficits exceeded the limit of releases earmarked for the period July 1948-June 1949.

The explanation for these deficits from the side of exports was the decline in the value of exports to all the areas, that in the case of the hard currency areas alone being about 35 per cent. Some of the causes affecting the decline in India's export trade were of a short-term character, but the production shortages in raw jute and raw cotton, and the effects of high and unstable prices for some of India's important export commodities did contain elements of structural changes.

On the import side, the liberal import control policy adopted in July 1948 was tightened up in successive stages beginning with the cancellation of the O.G.L. (No. XI) in May 1949, and its replacement by a new O.G.L. (No. XV) which restricted the list to mostly essential items and later by still another O.G.L. (No. XVI) which covered only twenty items. Similarly the licensing of dollar goods was virtually suspended for a couple of months pending the anouncement of the new import control policy under which the list of articles to be imported from the dollar area was drastically reduced to the most urgently needed categories of capital goods, raw materials and some of the more essential consumer goods such as life saving drugs.

Thus on the eve of devaluation, the position was that though the demand for India's exports including that from the hard currency areas was showing some signs of revival, speculative anticipations of devaluation were working in the opposite direction. Balance in the international accounts was being sought to be achieved by a combination of export promotion policy and a restricted import of goods both for the dollar and the soft currency areas.

Following devaluation, the rupee prices of approximately 25 per cent of India's imports from the hard currency areas were put up by 43.5 per cent leading to a deterioration in the overall terms of trade by about 10 per cent. On the side of exports, buyers from the non-devalued countries obtained a price advantage of 30.5 per cent over their competitors in the devalued countries.

In place of the deficit of Rs. 248.8 crores of the earlier period there was during the twelve months after devaluation a surplus of Rs. 65.9 crores in the current account brought about both by an improvement in exports and a curtailment in imports as well as a slight improvement in the net receipts from invisibles. The receipts from India's exports rose by about Rs. 120 crores and payments for imports declined by Rs. 317 crores. The invisible receipts were practically unaltered but the invisible payments declined by about Rs. 9 crores. A glance at the capital account shows that our total net assets had fallen during the twelve months before devaluation by about Rs. 245 crores ; in the subsequent twelve months there was net investment of about Rs. 35 crores, which owing to errors and omission does not precisely correspond to the current account surplus of Rs. 65.9 crores for October 1949—September 1950. However, the total improvement, whether judged from the current or the capital account angle is quite substantial and this would have been even better if the availability of raw materials like jute and cotton had not been hindered by developments in regard to the Pakistan currency and the trade deadlock which followed.

About the future trends, the Finance Minister, Mr. C. D. Deshmukh, observed in his budget speech on February 28, 1951 that " while the position so far has been satisfactory, I must sound a note of warning in regard to certain trends which might make it difficult for us to maintain this favourable balance in payments over a long period. Firstly, we may have difficulties in maintaining our exports. Secondly, there is bound to be a substantial increase in the volume and value of our imports due to the purchase of a larger quantity of food grains in the difficult food situation expected to persist during the next year and the rising prices abroad of industrial raw materials and manufactured goods."

INDIA'S BALANCE OF PAYMENTS

JANUARY 1949—JUNE 1950

A. CURRENT ACCOUNT: ALL AREAS

(In crores of rupees)

—	January-March 1949			April-June 1949			July-September 1949			October-December 1949			January-March 1950			April-June 1950		
	Receipts	Payments	Net	Receipts	Payments	Net	Receipts	Payments	Net	Receipts	Payments	Net	Receipts	Payments	Net	Receipts	Payments	Net
1. Merchandise (Exports f.o.b. Imports c.i.f.)	90·5	187·9	—97·4	94·1	175·2	—81·1	100·9	135·0	—34·1	133·8	104·2	+29·2	129·0	115·7	+13·3	110·0	135·0	—25·0
2. Non-monetary Gold movement ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
3. Foreign Travel .	..	1·2	— 1·2	..	1·2	— 1·2	..	1·0	— 1·0	..	0·8	— 0·8	..	1·2	— 1·2	..	0·8	— 0·8
4. Transportation ..	5·7	1·9	+ 3·8	5·5	2·2	+ 3·3	5·8	1·9	+ 3·9	7·6	1·5	+ 6·1	6·4	2·9	+ 3·5	3·5	1·0	+ 2·5
5. Insurance ..	1·0	0·7	+ 0·3	1·2	0·7	+ 0·5	1·1	0·4	+ 0·7	1·2	0·6	+ 0·6	1·4	0·7	+ 0·7	1·0	0·5	+ 0·5
6. Investment Income ..	4·3	9·1	— 4·8	1·0	6·0	— 5·0	3·8	6·0	— 2·3	1·9	6·2	— 4·3	2·6	7·0	— 4·4	1·5	9·5	— 8·0
7. Government (not included elsewhere) ..	7·1	20·2	—13·1	12·0	9·1	+ 2·9	7·1	11·4	— 4·3	7·6	8·4	— 0·9	10·3	8·0	+ 2·3	8·0	9·0	— 1·0
8. Donations ..	4·7	1·5	+ 3·2	3·2	1·2	+ 2·0	4·0	1·2	+ 2·8	4·5	1·2	+ 3·2	4·0	1·2	+ 2·8	5·0	3·0	+ 2·0
9. Miscellaneous	7·4	6·3	+ 1·1	10·2	4·1	+ 6·1	8·4	5·2	+ 3·2	7·6	4·6	+ 3·1	6·3	2·0	+ 4·3	4·0	1·2	+ 2·8
10. Unclassified..	4·0	2·5	+ 1·5	4·2	2·2	+ 2·0	7·9	0·7	+ 7·2	5·7	0·7	+ 5·0	9·2	0·7	+ 8·5	7·0	0·7	+ 6·3
11. Total current transactions	124·7	231·3	—106·6	131·5	201·9	—70·4	138·9	162·8	—23·9	170·0	128·2	+41·8	169·2	139·4	+29·8	140·0	160·7	—20·7
12. Errors and omissions..	..	..	+24·3	..	..	— 3·1	..	..	— 8·1	..	..	—12·4	..	..	+ 1·0	..	..	—10·6

B. CAPITAL ACCOUNT

(In crores of rupees)

Net Movement Increasing (+) Decreasing (—)

Movement of Capital and Monetary Gold	January-March 1949			April-June 1949			July-September 1949			October-December 1949			January-March 1950			April-June 1950		
	Assets	Liabilities	Net Assets	Assets	Liabilities	Net Assets	Assets	Liabilities	Net Assets	Assets	Liabilities	Net Assets	Assets	Liabilities	Net Assets	Assets	Liabilities	Net Assets
Private (excluding banking institutions)																		
11.0 Long-term capital	— 1·0	— 9·3	+ 8·3	— 0·9	— 5·0	+ 4·1	— 0·2	—9·2	+ 9·0	— 2·0	— 0·7	— 1·3	— 2·2	—3·8	+ 1·6	— 3·0	—6·5	+ 3·5
12.0 Short-term capital ..																		
Official and Banking Institutions																		
13.0 Long-term capital ..																		
13.1 Official Loans ..	— 4·6	..	— 4·6	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	+ 7·0	— 7·0	..	+ 5·7	— 5·7	..	+ 2·1	— 2·1
13.2 Bank Loans																		
13.3 Portfolio Securities	..	— 7·4	+ 7·4	..	— 6·7	+ 6·7	..	+0·2	— 0·2	— 5·0	+ 7·4	—12·4	..	—7·9	+ 7·9	..	— 2·0	+ 2·0
13.4 Amortization	— 1·9	— 0·2	— 1·7	— 1·9	— 0·9	— 0·9	— 1·9	—0·2	— 1·7	— 1·9	— 1·0	— 0·9	..	..	..	..	..	..
13.5 Other Contractual Payments																		
13.6 Other Contractual Payments																		
14.0 Short-term Capital ..																		
14.1 Payments and Clearing Agreements ..																		
14.2 Liabilities to I.M.F. and I.B.R.D.	..	+10·5	—10·5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
14.3 Other Liabilities to Official and Banking Institutions ..	..	+ 3·9	— 3·9	..	+ 1·7	— 1·7	..	+4·9	— 4·9	..	—12·9	+12·9	..	+0·5	— 0·5	..	+4·2	— 4·2
14.4 Other ..	—78·1	— 0·9	—77·2	—83·3	— 1·6	—81·7	—32·7	+1·7	—34·3	+37·8	— 0·3	+38·1	+28·7	+1·2	+27·5	—30·3	..	—30·3
15.0 Monetary Gold ..																		
16.0 Total Movement of Capital and Monetary Gold	—85·6	—3·3	—82·3	—86·1	—12·6	—73·5	—34·7	—2·7	—32·0	+29·0	—0·4	+29·4	+26·4	—4·4	+30·8	—33·3	—2·1	—31·3

BRETTONWOODS ORGANISATIONS

The history of the Brettonwoods Organisations, the International Monetary Fund and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, has been given in the previous editions.

The deficit of the rest of the world with the United States in 1947 had reached a post-war peak of $11.3 billion. In the following year it fell to $6.3 billion; and in the last quarter of 1948 the gold and dollar assets of the rest of the world increased by $192 million for the first time in the post-war period. In the first quarter of 1949 there was a further rise of $28 million in the reserves. The second quarter of 1949, however, witnessed a drastic reversal, the reserves declining by $ 330 million and the loss of dollars from the reserves continued in the third quarter in spite of a drastic fall in imports of goods and services from the U. S.

The widespread devaluation of currencies that took place in September 1949 was the most far-reaching in any comparable period in recent times. Thirteen members agreed to new par values with the Fund, most of them involving a devaluation of approximately 30.5 per cent. in relation to the U. S. dollar. Six member countries with which the Fund had no agreed par value also depreciated their exchange rates, and similar action was taken by ten other countries that are not members of the Fund. The countries that devalued their currencies in September accounted for approximately 65 per cent. of total world trade as measured by world imports in 1948.

Generally speaking, no very convincing case can be made out, on the basis of the economic conditions actually prevailing at the present time, for pressing members of the Fund to abandon their restrictions forthwith and assume as once the obligations of convertibility. This is not to argue that substantially more progress than has been made in the past in this direction is not now feasible. The improvement in the world economic situation in recent months would seem to imply that the past trend of expanding restrictions is capable of being reversed.

Par Values

On 18th December, 1946, the schedule of par values of the currencies of member countries was announced by the Fund. On September 20, 1949 this was revised by a large number of countries following devaluation of sterling in terms of the U.S. dollar. The following table gives par values of the more important currencies in terms of U.S. cents before September 1, 1949 and on December 31, 1949 :—

	Pre-September 1949.	Dec. 1, 1950.
Australian pound	322·400	224·000
Belgian franc	2·281 67	2·000 00
Brazilian cruzeiro	5·405 41	5·405 41
Canadian dollar	100·000	Free Rate
Chile's peso	3·225 81	3·225 81
Cuban peso	100·000	100·000
Czechoslavakia's koruna	2·000 00	2·000 00
Denmark's krone	20·83 76	14·477 8
Egyptian pound	413·300	287·156
Ethiopian dollar	40·250 0	40·250 0
Finnish markka	Par value not yet established.	
French franc	Since January 26, 1948 no agreed par value.	
Indian rupee	30·225 0	21·000 0
Iranian rial	3·100 78	3·100 78
Iraqi dinar	403·000	280·000
Italian lira	Par value not yet established.	
Lebanon's pound	45·631 3	45·631 3
Luxembourg's franc	2·281 67	2·0000 0
Mexican peso	20·597 3	11·560 7
Dutch guilder	37·6953	26·315 8
Norwegian krone	20·150 0	14·000 0
British pound	403·000	280·000
Pakistani rupee	Not Fixed	32·250

India was called upon to pay to the Fund its subscription of $400 million by 1st March, 1947. This had to be paid partly in the form of gold and partly in the form of rupees. Under the rules of the Fund, the gold subscription had either to be 25 per cent. of a country's quota or 10 per cent. of its net official holdings of gold and U.S. dollars whichever was less. As 10 per cent. of India's gold and dollar holdings was the lower figure, gold of this value was transferred to the Fund. Of the rupee subscriptions, a certain amount was credited to the Fund's account in the books of the Reserve Bank and the balance was paid in the form of non-negotiable non-interest-bearing promissory notes convertible on demand into rupees by crediting the par value to the account of the Fund.

In October, 1946, the Central Legislature, while approving the payment of India's subscription to the Bank, also approved the continued membership of the Fund and the Bank. The balance due on account of 2 per cent. of India's subscription amounting to $8,000,000 of which $40,000, was paid on 27th December, 1945, was paid in U.S. dollars on 12th August, 1946. In payment of the 2 per cent. of its capital subscriptions, the Bank received until the time of the first annual report $143,786,883·70 in gold and U.S. dollars out of a total of $153,400,000. Another call was made for the payment of 5 per cent. of the subscriptions payable in the local currencies of the members by 25th February, 1947. India paid $20,000,000 (Rs. 6,61,70,400) on account of this, partly in cash and partly in non-negotiable non-interest-bearing securities. Thus in 1947 India paid $60,000,000 to the Bank (15 per cent. of its capital subscription), of which $52,000,000 were paid in Indian currency.

A further sum of Rs. 79 crores was handed over to the two organisations in the form of non-negotiable non-interest-bearing securities in payment of the additional sum due to them following the devaluation of the rupee.

Gold Policy

The Fund's gold policy, declared as early as June 1947, aimed at discouraging premium prices. Early in 1949 South Africa decided to allow an export of 100,000 ozs. of gold at $38.20 per ounce. This met with disapproval from the Fund ; but after a series of discussions between the two, South Africa was allowed to sell 40 per cent. of her output at premium prices provided gold was not diverted to uses for which it was not meant. Belgium consulted the Fund with respect to a plan for the sale in Belgium of gold produced in the Belgian Congo at a premium. In this case too a compromise was effected. While the Fund turned down the suggestion of gold producing countries to raise the official price of gold, every decision was followed by new devices to circumvent it. Canada amended the Gold Mining Assistance Act to assist the mines. In Australia the gold mines received subsidies to enable a dividend of 6 per cent instead of 4 per cent.

The flow of gold to the free markets continued in greater volume in 1950 and gained fresh momentum in the latter half of the year from U. S. import surplus. Even non-producing countries, which had a huge export surplus, managed to feed the free markets and earn profits. In January 1951 the International Monetary Fund decided to inquire into the French policy of gold sales to the free markets. This was followed by another decision to direct the Fund's staff to negotiate with member countries with a view to checking transactions in premium prices. Simultaneously the U. S. announced its decision to maintain the official price of gold at $35 per fine ounce.

During the year ended March 31, 1950, the Fund completed sales of foreign exchange of the equivalent of $69.8 million against $107.4 million in the previous year. Between March 1, 1947 when the Fund commenced operations and March 31, 1950, the Fund effected exchange transactions aggregating the equivalent of $783.39 million. The payment of Thailand's subscription, adjustments in the subscriptions already paid, repurchase of currencies against gold by borrowers of Fund resources, and the payment of service and other charges in gold raised the Fund's holdings of gold during the year ended March 31, 1950 from $1,435.9 million to $1,459.5 million. On March 31, 1950 its holdings of currencies including non-negotiable, non-interest-bearing notes, and adjustment payments on account of currency devaluations amounted to the equivalent of $5,565.3 million of which $1,299.8 million was in U. S. dollars.

The following table reveals the estimated changes between end-1948 and end-1949 in the gold reserves and short-term dollar balances of the soft, hard and medium currency areas :—

	(in millions of U. S. $)			
	Holdings at end-1948		Holdings at end-1949	
	G. R.	D. B.	G. R.	D. B.
Soft Currency Areas				
Sterling Area	2,167	726	1,886	807
E.R.P.countries (excluding U.K. Western Germany, Switzerland, Belgium, Luxembourg and the Belgian Congo)	1,628	986	1,735	1,038
Asia excluding Japan	514	913	569	558
	4,309	2,625	4,190	2,403
Hard and Medium Currency Area				
Canada	408	775	496	867
Western Germany	..	179	..	149
Switzerland	1,387	499	1,504	504
Belgium-Luxembourg	647	174	723	160
Japan	206	81	162	215
Latin America	1,488	1,256	1,652	1,402
	4,136	2,964	4,537	3,297

Throughout 1950, and particularly since July 1950, the sterling area and other countries augmented their gold and dollar reserves at the cost of the U.S. The change was attributable to the huge purchases on account of American stockpiling, the spectacular rise in the prices of raw materials for which America is dependent on outside sources, and the restrictions on American imports.

World Bank

The fifth annual report of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development reviews the activities of the Bank for the period August 20, 1949 to August 1, 1950 and justifies the character of Bank lending.

The basic character of Bank lending is governed by the Articles of Agreement which lay down that (1) loans made or guaranteed by the Bank shall, except in special circumstances, be utilised for specific projects, (2) the Bank's resources should be used to finance those projects most needed for increasing the country's productive resources, and (3) except in special circumstances Bank loans should be designed to meet foreign exchange expenditure rather than local currency expenditure. The Bank is, however, willing to make loans for local currency expenditures if the domestic savings of the borrowing country are reasonably fully employed in productive investment.

The two principal charges are interest and commission. The interest rate is calculated to exceed the cost at which the Bank can borrow in the market for a comparable period by a small margin which, together with the income from

its capital, should be sufficient to cover the Bank's operating expenses and to yield a modest amount for its reserve fund. It also charges a commission of one per cent. per annum which is the minimum charge under the Articles of Agreement for the first ten years of the Bank's operation.

The Articles of Agreement debar the Bank from imposing conditions that the proceeds of a loan must be spent in the territory of a particular member. As on June 30, 1950 the Bank has disbursed the equivalent of $614.1 million under its loans, of which the equivalent of $17.9 million was drawn from the Bank's non-dollar resources. Of the total sum about three-quarters was spent in the United States. The Bank has tried to increase its available lending resources in non-dollar currencies by obtaining the permission of members to use for loans all or part of the 18 per cent. portion of their capital subscriptions. With this end in view, the Bank has decided that, unless it is necessary, it will not convert into other currencies, interest and commission payments on loans out of 18 per cent. funds.

Under the Articles of Agreement, loans to non-governmental borrowers must be guaranteed by the " member or the central bank or some comparable agency of the Bank which is acceptable to the member." The Bank continues to study the various techniques needed in different countries. It also maintains a close relationship with its borrowers throughout the duration of each loan. In the normal course of its loan operations, it renders technical assistance to members in a variety of ways.

The total loans granted by the Bank up to June 30, 1950 amount to $816,445,000. During the fiscal year ended June 30, 1950, the charges on loans accruing to the Bank amounted to $25,966,479 and repayments of principal totalled $552,136. The Bank's operations in the fiscal year resulted in a net income of $13,698,398 exclusive of the loan commissions credited to the special reserve which amounted to $5,663,064. On July 27, 1950, the Executive Directors established a reserve against losses on loans and guarantees made by the Bank.

With the withdrawal of Poland and the admission of Pakistan, the Bank's membership remained at 48. The total subscribed capital of the Bank has been increased by Pakistan's subscription of $100 million to $8,448.5 million as on August 1, 1950 subject to a reduction of $ 125 million when the Bank repurchases Poland's shares. The period in which Liberia and Haiti may accept membership was extended to September 30, 1950 and the application for membership by Ceylon was approved. Applications for membership were also received from Indonesia, Jordan and Sweden.

COINAGE

THE Act of 1818 marked the beginning of the Indian Coinage System when the silver rupee of 180 grains troy 11/12ths fine was made unlimited legal tender by the East India Company for South India where gold coins had been in circulation. Seventeen years later, the Gold and Silver Coinage Act was enacted to extend the unlimited legal tender character of the rupee to the whole of the then undivided India by substituting monometallism for bimetallism.

SILVER

Mintage of silver rupees was undertaken in this country in 1835. It continued till June 26, 1893 when the Indian Coinage Act of 1870 was amended with a view to closing the mints for the unrestricted coinage of silver for the public. For four years, no Government rupees were coined with the object of attaching higher value to it as coin than bullion; but recoinage was again undertaken in 1897 and 1898 following the conclusion of arrangements with Bhopal and Kashmir for replacing the State currency by Government rupees. In 1899 there was again no coinage of rupees; but the need for it in the following year resulted in resuming its mintage which continued almost uninterruptedly till 1922 when it was suspended. The Currency Act of 1927 made the silver rupee and the silver half-rupee legal tender without limit, but open to issue at the will of Government.

In 1940 the then Government of India decided, as a measure of conserving silver resources as far as possible in view of the rapid rise in silver price, to adopt the fineness of one-half silver and one-half alloy for all three coins. Incorporated in the new rupee was a new security edge device consisting of the insertion of a shallow re-entrant in the centre of the milled edge which was considered to be a virtually absolute safeguard against counterfeiting.

All Victoria and King Edward VII rupee and half rupee coins of the old fineness were withdrawn with effect from April 1, 1941 and May 31, 1942, respectively and King George V and King George VI standard silver rupees were called back with effect from May 1, 1943. These announcements marked the end of the policy which originated over 50 years ago of converting the rupee which had previously been a full value silver coin into a token. The return of coin was, however, meagre as since the end of March 1943, the average price of silver was higher than the melting point of the standard silver rupee.

As standard silver coins have been demonetised, it is no longer illegal to hoard or melt them or to purchase or sell them at a value other than their face value; consequently, large quantities of coin have been hoarded or melted and sold for their bullion content. Under the Indian Coinage Amendment Act, 1918, silver two anna pieces are no longer coined and issued, but coins previously issued continue to be legal tender.

New one-rupee notes were issued through the Reserve Bank of India in July 1941: the issue of these notes does not affect the earlier issue, the Government of India one-rupee notes of the 1935 King George V pattern which continue to be legal tender.

In April 1947, the Government of India enacted the Indian Coinage (Amendment) Act, 1947. Under the authority thus taken, the Government issued on May 24, 1947, two notifications, authorising the minting of rupee coin of pure nickel and prescribing its (standard) weight, dimensions, design, etc. The new coins, which were first issued from the Reserve Bank on June 2, 1947, were similar in design to the pure nickel half and quarter rupees, bearing on the obverse the King's effigy with the words, " George VI King Emperor ", and on the reverse a tiger, the word " India ", the year of issue and the denomination in English, Urdu, and Devanagari scripts.

The issue of quaternary (silver) rupee coin was discontinued from the end of May, 1946 when the reform for the introduction of the nickel rupee was launched. The mintage of India nickel rupees amounted to Rs. 10,26,11,000 in 1947, Rs. 5,74,28,000 in 1948 and Rs. 3,61,65,000 in 1949.

The total rupees minted from 1835 to 1949 amounted to Rs. 774,91,85,130 comprising 16,39,78,572 of William IV, 352,13,80,138 of Victoria, 98,28,53,552 of King Edward VII, 180,74,83,517 of George V, 98,02,178 of George VI (standard), 106,74,92,173 of George VI (Quaternary) and 19,61,95,000 of George VI (nickel). Out of the total, Calcutta Mints output was Rs. 469,40,85,165 the rest being that of Bombay.

On March 11, 1940, Section 5 of the Indian Coinage Act of 1906 was modified by an Amending Act. The amendment reduced the silver content of the four-anna coin from 11/12 or 41¼ grains of fine silver to 50 per cent. or 22½ grains. This brought the silver four anna coin into line with the British subsidiary coinage. With a view to preventing counterfeiting, the Government of India directed on July 15, 1943, that the quarter-rupee coin minted during and after August 1943 should have the same security edge as quaternary rupees and half rupees.

In 1941-42, the design of the half-rupee coin of 1941 and after was altered so as to make it conform to that of the quaternary rupee coin. The minting of the quaternary half and quarter rupee silver coins was, however, suspended by a notification in May 1946 in order to enable the Government to discharge the obligation to return in kind, within five years of the end of the war, the 226 million ounces of silver borrowed from the U. S. Government between 1943 and 1945.

Withdrawal of Silver Coin

The amount of rupee coin withdrawn during the last three years is given below :—

(In lakhs of rupees)

	1947–48	1948–49	1949–50
William IV 1835	..	..	..
Queen Victoria 1840	..	..	..
Standard Silver Rupees ..	0·51	0·30	..
Other Uncurrent Coin	0·80	0·22	0.21
Defective Quaternary Rupees ..	15·82	0·07	0.02
Total ..	17·13	0·59	0.23

NICKEL

By a notification issued on May 23, 1946 the Central Government directed that the half and quarter rupee coins of the same size and weight as the quaternary coins shall be printed in pure nickel. Pure nickel coins of the denominations of four annas and eight annas were issued towards the end of May, 1946.

The Act of 1906 also provided for the coinage of a nickel coin. It was directed that the nickel one-anna piece should thenceforth be coined at the Mint and issued. The notification also prescribed the design of the coin, which has a waved edge with twelve scollops, the greatest diameter of the coin being 21 millimetres and least diameter 19.8 millimetres. The advisability of issuing a half-anna nickel coin was considered by the Government of India in 1909 but after consultation with Local Governments it was decided not to take action in this direction until the people had become thoroughly familiar with the present one-anna coin. The two-anna nickel coin was introduced in 1917-18; and the

four-anna and eight-anna nickel coins in 1919. The eight-anna nickel was withdrawn from circulation in 1924 but is still being received at Issue Offices only.

On account of the war, the demand for small coin greatly increased and in January 1942 the Government of India issued a new half-anna coin which economises metal and is convenient to the public. Further with a view to economising the use of nickel, it was decided to mint new half-anna pieces and the one-anna coin and the later two-anna coin in a nickel-brass alloy instead of the cupro-nickel alloy. The notification of January 24, 1942, provided for the mintage of the new half-anna coin of a square shape and equal to three-fourths the weight of one-anna piece. According to this notification, the half-anna and one-anna pieces were minted in nickel-brass composed of 79 per cent. copper, 20 per cent. zinc and 1 per cent. nickel. A similar change in the metallic contents of the two-anna piece was announced on March 21, 1942.

Towards the end of November 1945, the Government of India decided that further requirements of two-anna and one-anna pieces should be minted in the cupro-nickel alloy instead of nickel-brass alloy which had been adopted as a wartime expedient and later found unsatisfactory.

In May 1946 the Central Government authorised the minting and issue of half and quarter rupee coins in pure nickel owing to "inadequate supplies of silver in the open market and the prevailing high prices in India." These new coins were exactly the same size and weight as the early silver coins with designs usually adopted for decimal coins of 50 cents and 25 cents respectively. The new coins have no security edge and have been designed with the margin lettering and head of the King on one side and the name of the country, the denomination in three languages, English, Devanagari and Urdu, with the figure of an Indian tiger on the reverse.

The efforts started in 1906 to avoid the wasteful use of a metal of high value like silver for coinage achieved their objective in 1947 when the Indian Coinage Act was amended further with a view to authorising the Government to issue all coins including the rupee in any metal. In the case of the half-rupee coin, the existing position was that the silver half-rupee was legal tender for any amount but the nickel half-rupee only for a sum not exceeding one rupee, under the same Act and, all half-rupee coins are legal tender for a sum not exceeding ten rupees, while coins of smaller denominations would continue to be legal tender for one rupee as before.

Eight-anna cupro-nickel coins were withdrawn with effect from October 1, 1924 and are now received at the Issue Offices only.

COPPER AND BRONZE

Copper coinage was introduced into the Bengal Presidency (now East and West Bengal) by Act XVII of 1835 and into the Madras and Bombay Presidencies by Act XXII of 1844. The weight of the copper coins struck under Act XXIII of 1870 remained the same as it was in 1835. It was as follows :—

	Grains troy.
Double pice or half-anna	200
Pice or quarter-anna	100
Half-pice or one-eighth of an anna ..	50
Pie being one-third of a pice or one-twelfth of an anna	33⅓

The weight and dimensions of bronze coins were as follows :—

	Standard weight in grains troy.	Diameter in millimetres.
Pice	75	25·4
Half-pice	37½	21·15
Pie	25	17·45

Since 1924 double pice coin has been and is being withdrawn from circulation but it is still received at Treasuries and Issue Offices.

With a view to protecting further issues of pice against hoarding resulting from the black market value of the metallic contents rising above the face value, the Government of India issued in February 1943 a new design of pice, which economises the metal and is expected to be convenient to the public. The Finance Department notification dated February 23, 1943, provided for the mintage of the new pice with a smaller diameter and a circular hole in the centre, reduced in weight from 75 grains to 35 grains and with a metallic composition of 97 per cent. copper, 2½ per cent. zinc and one-half per cent. tin instead of the former fineness of 95½ per cent. copper, 3 per cent. tin, and 2½ per cent. zinc. The notification also provided for the discontinuance of the coinage of half-pice and pie pieces. The new pice was issued from the Bombay office of the Reserve Bank on February 1, 1943.

GOLD

Since 1870 there has been no coinage of double mohurs in India and the last coinage of single mohurs suspended as from 1891-92 was undertaken for a short period in 1918 only. The Currency Act of 1927 provided that "gold coins whether coined at His Majesty's Royal Mint or at any Mint established in pursuance of a proclamation of His Majesty's Royal Mint, shall not be legal tender in British India but such coins shall be received at any Government Currency Office.....at the rate of 8,47,512 grains troy of fine gold per rupee."

DECIMALISATION

With a view to simplifying accounting and facilitating calculations the Government of India had under consideration the introduction of a decimal system of coinage in India. The occasion, calling for a huge recoinage programme necessitated by the unpopularity of the nickel brass coin introduced in 1942 as a wartime measure, was considered to be most opportune for the proposed reform. The proposals under this system were that the rupee would remain unaltered and the half-rupee and the quarter-rupee, while retaining their present shape, size and weight, would be issued as 50 cents and 25 cents coins. The existing lower denominations of small coin would, however, be discarded and, instead, cupro-nickel coins of 10 cents, 5 cents and 2 cents and bronze coins of 1 cent and, if necessary, ½ cent would be issued. A bill incorporating the above changes was introduced in the Central Legislative Assembly on the 18th February, 1946 and circularised to elicit public opinion. The matter was, however, allowed to rest due to the great changes which followed in August 1947.

INDIAN CURRENCY NOTES

Early in 1949-50, a change was made in the paper used for Bank notes of the denomination of Rs. 100. The new paper bears a full-face portrait water-mark of King George VI in the black water-mark panel in place of the profile water-mark. The new Rs. 100 notes were first issued from the Bombay office on may 31, 1949. Later with a view to facilitating sorting and listing of notes of the denominations of Rs. 2 Rs. 5 and Rs. 100 were changed to black to red, red and green and one-rupee notes were changed from green to black.

With the inauguration of the Indian Republic on January 26, 1950, a new series each of the Government of India one-rupee notes and the Bank notes of the denomination of Rs. 2, Rs. 5, Rs.10 and Rs.100 was issued with the Republic's distinctive design of the "Asoka Pillar" which replaced the King's effigy. The existing notes continue to be legal tender. The details regarding the new design, paper used, size, colour, etc. appeared in press communiques issued on January 9, 1950.

BANKING

MODERN banking in India owes its origin to the British agency houses operating in Bombay and Calcutta in the eighteenth century. The banks in those days were connected with the introduction of their notes. The crisis that overtook the agency houses in the first half of nineteenth century had an adverse effect on this type of banking. Broadly, the history of Indian banking may be divided into three sections, one connected with the influence of the Presidency Banks, second following the establishment of the Imperial Bank of India in 1921, and third under the guidance of the Reserve Bank of India.

PRESIDENCY BANKS

The history of the Presidency Banks again falls into three well-defined stages. The Bank of Bengal was started in 1806, and it took 34 years more before the Bank of Bombay came into existence. The Bank of Madras however came only three years later in 1843. Prior to 1862, these Banks had the right of note issue and their main activity was to facilitate the borrowing operations of the East India Company and the financing of the trade of British merchants. Naturally, they were subject to Government control and their business was restricted by the terms of their charter.

In 1862, these banks were deprived of the right of note issue and were authorised to transact paper currency business as agents of Government. As compensation for the loss of their right of issue, they were given use of the Government balances and the management of the treasury work in the cities and towns where they had their branches. Four years later, however, they were deprived of the paper currency business and by the Act of 1876 severe restrictions were imposed on their business. This system continued till 1920 when the Presidency Banks were merged into the Imperial Bank of India.

IMPERIAL BANK

Under the Imperial Bank of India Act of 1920, as amended by the Amendment Act of 1934, the control of the Bank is entrusted to a Central Board of Directors with Local Boards at Calcutta, Bombay and Madras and such other places as the Central Board may determine. A more detailed reference to the salient provisions in the Act will be found in the earlier editions of the Year Book; but it may be mentioned here that under the agreement with the Reserve Bank of India, the Imperial Bank continues to be the sole agent of the Reserve Bank at all places in the Indian Union where there was a branch of the Imperial Bank and no branch of the Banking Department of the Reserve Bank of India before 1934.

The Imperial Bank has at present over 185 branches and over 200 sub-offices in India and Pakistan and is also the sole agent of the State Bank of Pakistan at places where the latter has no office. Sir Roderick Chisholm the Managing Director, and Mr. S. K. Handoo the Deputy Managing Director. The progress of the Bank is summed up below :—

Liabilities and Assets

(In lakhs of Rupees)

As on	Capital and Reserves			Deposits			Cash in Hand -and at Banks	Investments (Govt. and other authorised securities)	Loans & Advances including Bills Discounted & Purchased	No. of Offices in India**
	Paid-up Capital	Reserves	Total	Government* (Public)	Private	Total				
31st Dec. 1921	5,62	4,02	9,64	6,80	65,78	72,58	13,68	12,46	53,90	88
,, ,, 1922	5,63	4,23	9,86	14,16	57,00	71,16	15,07	9,79	54,51	106
,, ,, 1923	5,63	4,45	10,08	8,57	74,20	82,77	15,01	12,18	70,71	149
,, ,, 1924	5,63	4,68	10,31	7,50	76,71	84,21	15,60	16,37	61,40	165
,, ,, 1925	5,63	4,83	10,46	5,47	77,83	83,30	17,47	17,01	56,45	181
,, ,, 1926	5,63	5,00	10,63	6,45	73,90	80,35	20,90	19,15	48,02	186
,, ,, 1927	5,63	5,13	10,76	7,20	72,07	79,27	10,89	18,59	61,53	198
,, ,, 1928	5,63	5,23	10,86	7,95	71,30	79,25	10,58	21,76	61,60	202
,, ,, 1929	5,63	5,33	10,96	7,60	71,64	79,24	14,00	33,00	40,59	203
,, ,, 1930	5,63	5,39	11,02	7,37	76,60	83,97	13,04	29,25	49,58	206
,, ,, 1931	5,63	5,00	10,63	8,32	63,86	72,18	11,04	30,27	41,58	201
,, ,, 1932	5,63	5,17	10,80	7,07	68,36	75,43	20,97	32,04	30,60	201
,, ,, 1933	5,63	5,23	10,87	6,44	74,13	80,57	18,60	47,03	22,99	202
,, ,, 1934	5,63	5,35	10,98	6,72	74,28	81,00	18,97	41,56	29,02	221
,, ,, 1935	5,63	5,47	11,10	..	79,10	79,10	19,59	46,88	21,58	228
,, ,, 1936	5,63	5,50	11,13	..	78,80	78,80	8,56	52,59	26,76	269
,, ,, 1937	5,63	5,50	11,13	..	81,08	81,08	13,43	47,62	29,37	319
,, ,, 1938	5,63	5,55	11,18	..	81,51	81,51	8,99	43,72	38,30	358
,, ,, 1939	5,63	5,60	11,23	..	87,84	87,84	11,09	38,02	48,28	381
,, ,, 1940	5,63	5,62	11,25	..	96,03	96,03	24,83	48,57	32,31	390
,, ,, 1941	5,63	5,62	11,25	..	108,92	108,92	15,27	64,39	38,88	401
,, ,, 1942	5,63	5,75	11,38	..	163,46	163,46	23,00	116,41	33,79	398
,, ,, 1943	5,63	5,85	11,48	..	214,53	214,53	53,36	130,20	40,60	404
,, ,, 1944	5,63	6,00	11,63	..	237,78	237,78	28,31	148,63	70,23	419
,, ,, 1945	5,63	6,07	11,70	..	259,37	259,37	41,60	154,18	72,97	426
,, ,, 1946	5,63	6,17	11,80	..	271,67	271,67	42,45	154,53	94,27	358(87)
,, ,, 1947	5,63	6,25	11,88	..	286,59	286,59	42,89	164,19	89,15	362(86)
,, ,, 1948	5,63	6,27	11,90	..	280,29	280,29	43,67	161,25	98,00	367(84)
,, ,, 1949	5,63	6,30	11,93	..	250,46	250,46	52,43	106,84	90,31	377(36)
,, ,, 1950	5,63	6,32½	11,95½	..	234,97	234,97	28,45	121,56	91,15	..

* Government deposits were transferred to the Reserve Bank of India as from 1935.

** Includes offices in Burma up to 1943. Figures in brackets from 1946 indicate offices outside the Indian Union.

The two points on which there was a good deal of discussion were the Indianisation and the nationalisation of the Bank. The then Finance Minister was satisfied with the measures taken by the Bank to accelerate the pace of Indianisation. He also stated that the Bank need not be nationalised; instead the Act would be amended to make it more useful in the light of the recommendations of the Rural Banking Inquiry committee. (The report of this committee is given elsewhere in this article.)

RESERVE BANK OF INDIA

The idea of a central banking institution for the Indian sub-continent was mooted as early as in 1836 and was the subject of a minute by Mr. James Wilson, the then Finance Member, in 1859. Eight years later, Mr. Dickson, the then Secretary of the Bank of Bengal, submitted detailed proposals for the amalgamation of the three Presidency Banks. The question was again revived in 1913 by the Chamberlain Commission and was later thrashed out by the Hilton Young Commission. The latter came to the conclusion that central banking functions should not be combined with commercial banking and since it did not wish to rob the Imperial Bank of its commercial functions on the ground that such a step would arrest the progress of the country in one important sphere in which progress was most urgent and vital, it recommended a special central bank.

But the question remained undecided for nearly seven years owing to differences of opinion on its constitution. The White Paper on Indian

reforms carried the matter a step further when it laid it down as a condition that before responsibility in respect of finance was introduced at the centre a Reserve Bank free from political influence should be set up.

The Reserve Bank of India Act was passed by the Legislative Assembly and received the assent of the Governor-General on 6th March 1934 and the Bank began to function on 1st April 1935. From this date, the Reserve Bank took over the management of the Currency Department of the Government of India by the creation of a special department known as the Issue Department. The assets of the Gold Standard Reserve were transferred to the Bank and were combined with the assets of the Currency Department. On July 1st the Banking Department was opened and the scheduled banks deposited the required percentage of their demand and time liabilities. The Clearing House was transferred from the Imperial Bank to the Reserve Bank as from this date.

Prior to its nationalisation as from January 1, 1949, the share capital of the Reserve Bank was 5 crores of Rupees in shares of Rs. 100 each, fully paid up. The Reserve Fund of Rupees five crores was provided by Government to the Bank in the form of Government Rupee Securities.

The Bank maintained share registers at its offices at Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi and Madras.

Management.—The general superintendence and direction of the affairs and business of the Bank is entrusted to a Central Board of Directors which exercises all powers and does all acts and things which may be exercised and done by the Bank. The Board is composed of: —

(*a*) A Governor and two Deputy Governors appointed by the Central Government after consideration of the recommendations made by the Board.

(*b*) Ten Directors nominated by the Central Government.

(*c*) One Government official nominated by the Central Government.

The Governor and Deputy Governors are the executive heads, and hold office for such term not exceeding five years as the Central Government may fix when appointing them, and are eligible for re-appointment. A Local Board is constituted for each of the five areas.

Functions

The Bank is authorised to carry on and transact the following commercial business, *viz* :—The accepting of money on deposit without interest; the purchase, sale and rediscount of bills of exchange and promissory notes with certain restrictions; the making of loans and advances, repayable on demand but not exceeding 90 days, against the security of stocks, funds and securities (other than immovable property) against gold coin or bullion or documents of title to the same and such bills of exchange and promissory notes as are eligible for purchase or rediscount by the Bank; the purchase from and sale to scheduled Banks of sterling in amounts of not less than the equivalent of Rs. 1 lakh; the making of advances to the Central Government and to State Governments repayable in each case not later than three months from the date of making the advance; the purchase and sale of Government securities of the United Kingdom maturing within ten years from the date of purchase; the purchase and sale of securities of the Government of India or of a State Government of any maturity or of a local authority in India and Pakistan.

The Bank is authorised to act as Agent for the Central Government or any State Government in India for the purchase and sale of gold and silver; for the purchase, sale, transfer and custody of bills of exchange, securities or shares; for the collection of the proceeds, whether principal, interest or dividends, of any securities or shares; for the remittance of such proceeds by bill of exchange payable either in India or elsewhere, and for the management of public debt.

Bank Notes.—The sole right to issue bank notes in India is vested in the Reserve Bank and at commencement the Bank shall issue currency notes of the Government of India supplied to it by the Central Government and on and from the date of such transfer the Central Government shall not issue any currency notes. The issue of bank notes shall be conducted by the Bank in an Issue Department which shall be separated and kept wholly distinct from the Banking Department.

The Bank shall sell to or buy from any person who makes a demand in that behalf at its office in Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Madras or Rangoon, sterling for immediate delivery in London at a rate not lower than 1*sh*. 5 49/64*d*. and not higher than 1*sh*. 6 3/16*d*. respectively; provided that no person shall be entitled to demand to buy or sell an amount of sterling less than ten thousand pounds. In April 1947 the Reserve Bank Act was amended consequent on India's membership of the International Monetary Fund and the fixing of the par value of the rupee. The amended Sections 40 and 41 of the Act now require the Reserve Bank to buy and sell foreign exchange at such rates and on such terms as the Central Government may determine from time to time.

The Bank shall make public from time to time the standard rate at which it is prepared to buy or re-discount bills of exchange or other commercial paper eligible for purchase under the Act.

The Bank will publish the accounts of both the Issue and Banking Departments weekly in the *Gazette of India*.

Every bank included in the Second Schedule shall maintain with the Bank a balance the amount of which shall not at the close of business on any day be less than five per cent. of the demand liabilities and two per cent. of the time liabilities of such bank in India as shown in the return referred to in sub-section (2).

Agricultural Credit Department.—The Bank shall create a special Agricultural Credit Department the functions of which shall be—

(*a*) to maintain an expert staff to study all questions of agricultural credit and be available for consultation by the Central Government [State Governments], provincial co-operative banks, and other banking organisations.

(*b*) to co-ordinate the operations of the Bank in connection with agricultural credit and its relations with provincial co-operative banks, and any other banks or organisations engaged in the business of agricultural credit.

The Bank shall, at the earliest practicable date and in any case within three years from the date on which this Chapter comes into force, make to the Central Government a report, with proposals, if it thinks fit, for legislation, on the following matters, namely :—

(*a*) the extension of the provisions of this Act relating to scheduled banks to persons and firms, not being scheduled banks, engaged in India in the business of banking and

(*b*) the improvement of the machinery for dealing with agricultural finance and methods for effecting a closer connection between agricultural enterprise and the operations of the Bank.

When the Bank is of opinion that the international monetary position has become sufficiently clear and stable to make it possible to determine what will be suitable as a permanent basis for the Indian monetary system and to frame permanent measures for a monetary standard it shall report its views to the Central Government.

The full text of the Act will be found in the earlier editions of the Year Book.

Central Board of Directors

Governor.—Sir Benegal Rama Rau.

Deputy Governors.—Mr. Ram Nath and Mr. N. Sundaresan.

The following have been appointed as Directors of the Central Board :—

Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas (Bombay); Mr. B. M. Birla (Calcutta); Sir Shri Ram (New Delhi); Mr. C. R. Sreenivasan (Madras); Sir Rustom P. Masani (Bombay); Sir Manilal B. Nanavati (Bombay); Mr. D. N. Sen (Calcutta); Mr. Shri Nivas (Benares); Mr. C. S. Ratnasabhapathy Mudaliar (Coimbatore); Mr. R. M. Deshmukh (Amravati); and Mr. K. G. Ambegaokar (Governnmet Official).

The first four Directors have been appointed under clause (*b*) and the next six, under clause (*c*) of sub-section one of section 8, of the Reserve Bank Act 1934, as amended by the Reserve Bank (Transfer to Public Ownership) Act, 1948.

Report for 1949-50.

The report of the Central Board of Directors of the Reserve Bank of India for the year ended June 30, 1950 states that the Bank's income amounted to Rs. 12.90 crores. After paying expenses and providing for liabilities and contingencies amounting to Rs. 2.99 crores, the net profit was Rs. 9.91 crores as against Rs. 8.96 crores transferred to the Central Government last year.

Out of a total of 5 lakhs of shares (including 2,200 shares held by Government for disposal at par to directors seeking to obtain the minimum share qualification), the total number of shares tendered for payment of compensation up to June 30, 1950 was 4,59,969, the total amount of compensation paid in the form of 3 per cent. First Development Loan, 1970-75 being Rs. 5.08 crores, and in the form of cash Rs. 31 lakhs.

During the accounting year, additional sterling securities for Rs. 12.19 crores were transferred to the State Bank of Pakistan against the return of an equivalent amount of rupee securities by it. Note cancellation sections were opened at Ahmedabad and Patna, while the section at Meerut opened last year was closed down.

Following the enactment of the Banking Law, the Reserve Bank is now empowered to conduct inspections of banks on its own initiative. The training of necessary staff will, however, take time. A tentative programme has been drawn up and it is expected that by the end of 1952 all the banking companies would be inspected for the purpose of determining their eligibility for licences. Under the Act no banking company can open a new place of business without prior permission of the Reserve Bank. During the year 79 such applications were disposed of, out of which 75 were for opening 95 new branches, and four for changing the location of 6 existing ones. Licences were issued for opening 66 new branches and for changing the location of all the 6 for which permission had been sought. Ten banks were inspected during the year for the purpose of examining schemes of arrangement for amalgamation.

In the field of agricultural finance the Reserve Bank offered additional facilities to accommodate co-operative banks. The concessional rate of 1½ per cent. below the Bank Rate has now been extended to advances under section 17(4) (*a*) as well subject to the condition that the credit is utilised strictly for seasonal agricultural operations and the marketing of crops. Applications for credit during the year amounted to Rs. 4.82 crores as against Rs. 3.56 crores in 1949, while the total credit granted amounted to Rs. 2.14 crores in 1950 as against Rs. 1.80 crores in 1949.

Statement of the Affairs of the Reserve Bank of India

ISSUE DEPARTMENT

(In lakhs of Rupees.)

Year.	Notes held in the Banking Department.	Notes in Circulation.		Total Notes Issued.	Gold Coin and Bullion.		Foreign Securities.	Total Gold Coin and Bullion and Sterling Securities.	Rupee Coin.	Govt. of India Rupee Securities.	Ratio of Gold Coin and Bullion and Sterling Securities to Total Liabilities.
		Legal Tender in India.	Legal Tender in Burma.		Held in India.	Held outside India.					
31st Dec. 1936 ..	11,87	192,00	..	203,87	41,55	2,87	71,31	115,73	64,76	23,38	56·768%
,, ,, 1937 ..	29,33	180,60	4,77	214,70	41,55	2,87	80,30	124,72	62,57	27,41	58·092%
,, ,, 1938 ..	18,43	180,26	7,74	206,43	41,55	2,87	59,50	103,92	70,19	32,32	50·339%
,, ,, 1939 ..	17,67	225,20	11,43	254,30	41,55	2,87	107,50	151,92	64,04	38,34	59·739%
30th June 1940 ..	11,09	235,04	12,70	258,83	41,54	2,87	131,50	175,91	33,32	49,60	67·966%
,, ,, 1941 ..	13,07	260,01	18,26	291,34	44,41	*Nil*	118,80	163,21	36,81	91,32	56·022%
,, ,, 1942 ..	14,33	447,23	*Nil*	461,56	44,42	*Nil*	266,85	311,27	28,00	122,29	67·439%
,, ,, 1943 ..	13,68	732,48	*Nil*	746,16	44,41	*Nil*	567,79	612,20	15,55	118,41	82·047%
,, ,, 1944 ..	12,02	931,38	*Nil*	943,40	44,41	*Nil*	828,33	872,74	12,82	57,84	92·511%
,, ,, 1945 ..	14,31	1,137,48	*Nil*	1,151,79	44,42	*Nil*	1,034,33	1,078,75	15,20	57,84	93·658%
,, ,, 1946 ..	17,21	1,236,87	*Nil*	1,254,08	44,41	*Nil*	1,135,33	1,179,74	16,50	57,84	94·072%
,, ,, 1947 ..	41,76	1,223,55	*Nil*	1,265,31	44,41	*Nil*	1,135,33	1,179,74	27,73	57,84	93·237%
,, ,, 1948 ..	30,66	1,320,43 (51,57)	*Nil*	1,351,09 (51,57)	44,41	*Nil*	1,135,33	1,179,74	43,51 (3,32)	127,84	87·318%
,, ,, 1949 ..	32,69	1,153,75	*Nil*	1,186,44	40,02	*Nil*	685,34	725,36	47,36	413,72	61·138%
,, ,, 1950 ..	36,61	1,168,53	*Nil*	1,205,14	40,02	*Nil*	638,15	678,17	55,30	471,67	56·273%

NOTE: Figures in brackets refer to Pakistan.

BANKING DEPARTMENT

(In lakhs of Rupees.)

Year.	Paid-up Capital and Reserves.	Deposits.						Bills payable.	Other liabilities.	Total liabilities and Assets.	Cash.	Bills purchased & discounted.	Balances held abroad.	Loans and Advances.		Investments.	Other Assets.
		Central Government.	Government of Burma.	Other Government Accounts.	Banks.	Others.	Total.							To Governments.	To others.		
31st Dec.																	
1936 ..	10,00	7,14	..	..	15,87	27	23,28	9	70	34,07	11,97	*Nil*	14,86	*Nil*	*Nil*	6,16	1,08
1937 ..	10,00	9,76	..	..	20,16	1,27	31,19	12	56	41,87	29,41	*Nil*	3,64	2,00	2	6,24	56
1938 ..	10,00	4,87	1,95	4,36	12,18	84	24,20	9	87	35,16	18,54	8,26	1,14	1,06	11	5,26	79
1939 ..	10,00	6,73	1,54	4,58	18,87	1,16	32,88	9	54	43,51	17,74	10,11	6,98	1,20	*Nil*	6,42	1,06
30th June																	
1940 ..	10,00	6,20	1,45	4,42	20,98	1,46	34,51	9	49	45,09	11,21	4,09	20,20	10	15	7,70	1,64
1941 ..	10,00	15,03	3,26	4,17	30,02	2,37	54,85	39	2,07	67,31	13,19	*Nil*	47,33	15	*Nil*	5,27	1,37
1942 ..	10,00	14,11	34	7,56	64,63	2,01	88,65	3,33	2,38	104,36	14,44	6	80,39	*Nil*	*Nil*	8,24	1,23
1943 ..	10,00	8,42	63	9,98	58,24	3,05	80,32	1,60	7,19	99,11	13,84	51	75,88	*Nil*	22	7,38	1,28
1944 ..	10,00	65,25	79	16,79	94,35	3,45	180,63	2,97	8,09	201,69	12,31	2,59	173,74	72	10	11,11	1,12
1945 ..	10,00	277,97	71	22,96	80,19	17,93	399,76	3,78	12,35	425,89	14,49	*Nil*	388,13	70	*Nil*	21,44	1,13
1946 ..	10,00	457,43	87	18,56	109,47	6,47	592,80	2,88	12,26	617,94	17,49	*Nil*	559,06	*Nil*	6	30,79	10,54
1947 ..	10,00	390,70	..	18,00	88,91	30,96	528,57	1,92	7,92	548,41	41,86	*Nil*	430,82	5,11	3	66,94	1,21
1948 ..	10,00	284,30 (69,27)	..	25,02 (5,66)	103,21	47,95	460,47 (74,92)	4,02	12,34	486,83	30,75	1,76	401,34	11 (3)	*Nil*	50,86	2,01
1949 ..	10,00	128,39	..	16,97	67,45	61,29	274,10	3,27	7,50	294,88	32,83	57	135,68	10,72	7,32	103,45	2,03
1950 ..	10,00	140,67	..	15,20	52,44	63,58	271,89	3,81	12,14	297,83	36,74	1,09	189,25	93	10,01	57,05	2,10

NOTE: Figures in brackets refer to Pakistan.

EXCHANGE BANKS

The banks carrying on exchange business in India are merely branch agencies of banks having their head offices in London, on the Continent, in the Far East or the U. S. A. Originally their business was confined almost exclusively to the financing of the external trade of India; but in recent years, most of them, while continuing to play their main role, have also taken an active part in the financing of internal trade. Before the Great War, these banks used to do their business in India with money borrowed elsewhere; but the development of the money market in this country in the past three decades have enabled them to depend on internal deposits.

Discussing the question of investment in greater detail we find that so far as India is concerned they consist to a great extent of the purchase of bills drawn against imports and exports to and from India.

The financing of the import trade originated and is carried through however for the most part by branches outside India, the Indian Branches' share in the business consisting principally in collecting the amount of the bills at maturity and in furnishing their other branches with information as to the means and standing of the drawees of the bills, and it is as regards the export business that the Indian branches are more immediately concerned. The Exchange Banks have practically a monopoly of the export finance in India and in view of the dimensions of the trade which has to be dealt with the Banks would under ordinary circumstances require to utilise a very large proportion of their resources in carrying through the business. They are able, however, by a system of rediscount in London to limit the employment of their own resources to a comparatively small figure in relation to the business they actually put through.

The bills against exports are largely drawn at three months' sight and may either be "clean" or be accompanied by the documents relating to the goods in respect of which they are drawn. Most of them are drawn on well-known firms at home or against credits opened by Banks or financial houses in England and bearing as they do an Exchange Bank endorsement they are readily taken up by the discount houses and Banks in London. Any bills purchased in India are sent home by the first possible mail so that presuming they are rediscounted as soon as they reach London the Exchange Banks are able to secure the return of their money in about 16 or 17 days instead of having to wait for three months which would be the case if they were unable to rediscount. It must not be assumed however that all bills are rediscounted as soon as they reach London as at times it suits the Banks to hold up the bills in anticipation of a fall in the London discount rate while on occasions also the Banks prefer to hold the bills on their own account as an investment until maturity.

The Banks place themselves in funds in India and Pakistan for the purpose of purchasing export bills in a variety of ways of which the following are the principal:—

(1) Proceeds of import bills as they mature.

(2) Sale of drafts and telegraphic transfers payable in London and elsewhere out of India or Pakistan.
(3) Purchase of Council Bills and Telegraphic Transfers payable in India from the Secretary of State.
(4) Imports of bar gold and silver, bullion.
(5) Imports of sovereigns from London, Egypt or Australia.

Besides the British Exchange Banks, there are a few foreign banks operating in India. The earlier progress of Exchange Banks has been tabulated in the previous editions. The more recent trends are summed up below :—

Liabilities and Assets of Banks Registered Abroad

(In lakhs of Rupees)

Year	No. of Banks	Deposits					Cash		Bills Discounted and Purchased	Loans and Advances	Investments		No. of Offices in the Indian Union
		Fixed	Savings	Current	Others	Total	In Hand	At Banks			Govt. Securities	Others	
INDIA AND BURMA													
Exchange Banks													
1935	18	..	..	..	..	69,04	5,18		31,30		..	..	95
1936	19	..	..	..	..	69,75	4,93		34,41		..	..	99
1937	19	..	..	..	..	72,86	7,29		36,94		..	..	97
1938	19	..	..	..	..	70,07	5,27		33,84		..	..	93
1939	19	..	..	..	..	74,18	6,87		50,15		..	..	99
1940	20	..	..	..	..	85,33	17,20		27,82		..	..	101
1941	17	..	..	..	..	106,21	13,79		31,43		..	..	99
UNDIVIDED INDIA													
Exchange Banks													
1942	16	..	..	..	..	116,85	12,01		17,77		..	..	82
1943	16	..	..	..	..	140,19	17,24		30,12		..	..	84
1944	15	..	..	..	..	167,41	19,19		36,64		..	..	79
1945	15	..	..	..	..	179,00	18,32		45,82		..	..	77
INDIAN UNION													
(i) *Exchange Banks*													
1946	15	16,17	7,63	139,23	6,45	169,49	4,70	16,86	6,94	62,05	..	..	58
1947	15	20,66	8,32	128,96	5,74	163,67	5,16	22,03	9,92	81,51	..	..	60
1948	15	27,49	9,60	118,38	4,72	160,19	4,53	12,20	10,09	103,92	..	..	62
1949	15	30,01	9,74	177,17	5,14	162,06	2,18	16,69	16,32	104,79	46, 27	1,11	64
(ii) *Other Banks Registered Abroad*													
1946	13	1,72	88	8,92	55	12,08	90	1,41	65	2,03	..	..	51
1947	8	1,25	94	8,06	25	10,50	67	3,40	76	5,58	..	..	36
1948	5	66	1,01	5,32	20	7,18	30	83	29	1,37	..	..	16
1949	5	56	80	3,45	1	4,82	16	46	17	89	2,91	4	16

NOTE : Data upto 1945 are as on the last Friday of each year ; those from 1946 as on the date of the balance sheet. Upto 1945 total deposits relate to the total of demand and time liabilities.

GROWTH OF BANKING

The credit for giving an impetus to joint stock banking in India goes to a certain passage in the Indian Companies Act of 1860 which accepted the principle of limited liability, a factor indispensable to the raising of large amounts of capital. Till 1906 however, there were few banks in the country and their resources being meagre, the sphere of activity was also restricted. The *swadeshi* movement gave an impetus to indigenous banking activity in the country and between 1906 and 1913, the number of banks with capital and reserves in excess of Rs. 5 lakhs doubled and their deposits increased from Rs. 8 crores to Rs. 18 crores. The year 1913 however was, a rude shock when several banks led by the People's Bank of India and the Indian Specie Bank went into liquidation ; and though the First World War did give a fresh impetus, and the share of Indian joint stock banks in the aggregate deposits of banks in the country increased from 21 per cent. in 1914 to as much as 32 per cent. in 1920, it is a fact that between 1913 and 1924 as many as 161 banks failed.

In the following seven years the joint stock banks in the country were adversely hit by the world depression ; but the economic recovery that followed resulted in increasing the share of deposits of these banks. The increase was mainly achieved at the cost of the Imperial Bank of India and the Exchange Banks. Since then there was a steady development till the outbreak of the Second World War excepting for a minor set-back in 1938 as the result of the closing down of the Travancore National and Quilon Bank, Ltd. The pace of expansion accelerated during the war period and continued till August 1947 when the disturbances completely dislocated the banking system in the affected areas. Nevertheless, commercial banking in India as a whole presented an encouraging picture and even recorded further expansion.

The following statements give details about the position of Indian banking :—

Liabilities and Assets of Indian Joint Stock Banks Relating to Their Business in the Indian Union and Total Business

(In lakhs of Rupees)

End of	Deposits		Cash				Bills Discounted and Purchased		Loans and Advances		No. of Offices	
			In Hand		At Banks							
	I.U.	Total	I.U.	Total	I.U.	Total	I.U.	Total	I.U.	Total	I.U.	Total
1946	844,59	986,91	56,32	76,96	96,03	109,37	40,33	45,26	355,21	413,79	4,777	5,588
1947	877,92	989,78	53,41	75,44	101,77	106,19	40,53	42,47	346,42	390,46	4,723	5,254
1948	842,91	950,83	53,27	69,65	85,61	102,47	39,14	41,34	351,23	386,93	4,594	4,866
1949	755,23	829,55	46,43	68,79	81,90	102,58	30,71	32,66	338,50	360,45	4,356	4,546

Consolidated Statement of Scheduled Banks.

(In lakhs of Rupees)

	No. of Reporting Banks	Demand Deposits	Time Deposits	Total Deposits	Borrowings from Banks	Cash	Balances with Reserve Bank	Advances	Bills Discounted	Investments in Govt. Securities*
Average of Fridays										
1939	58	135,49	105,99	241,48	..	6,88	16,06	116,78	5,43	..
1940	60	155,68	106,16	261,84	..	7,91	30,03	131,78	4,05	..
1941	64	200,28	107,20	307,48	..	9,48	37,80	118,96	5,01	..
1942	60	273,24	101,27	374,51	..	11,81	52,83	97,26	2,50	..
1943	65	418,68	130,87	549,55	..	18,43	60,25	137,11	4,31	..
1944	78	561,25	181,86	743,11	..	26,06	85,65	205,82	9,63	..
1945	87	631,33	240,57	871,90	..	32,30	87,22	268,96	14,75	495,83*
1946	93	722,05	310,41	1,032,46	..	40,61	85,42	372,76	20,44	494,08
1947	97	698,35	344,39	1,042,74	..	40,05	95,77	427,51	18,13	483,78
1948	95	679,21	310,07	989,28	..	37,55	83,40	417,12	16,21	450,16*
1949	94	609,72	278,19	887,91	27,83	34,93	66,31	433,90	15,71	357,32

*From 1945 to 1947, both inclusive the figures represent Central and Provincial Government Securities. Thereafter they include other State Governments and postal Certificates.

Liabilities and Assests of Indian Joint Stock Banks (From 1946)

(In lakhs of Rupees)

End of	No. of Reporting Banks	Paid-up Capital	Reserves	Deposits					Total Liabilities or Assets	Cash		Bills Discounted and Purchased	Loans and Advances	Investments		Net Profit	No. of Offices*
				Fixed	Savings	Current	Others	Total		In Hand	At Banks			Government Securities	Others		
IMPERIAL BANK OF INDIA																	
1946	1	5,63	6,17	43,66	25,67	166,54	35,81	271,67	294,39	15,27	27,19	11,02	83,26	141,18	13,35	1,14	358 (87)
1947	1	5,63	6,25	49,12	28,55	169,87	39,04	286,59	299,40	22,62	20,27	12,08	77,07	155,53	8,67	1,23	362 (86)
1948	1	5,63	6,27	41,94	31,44	173,49	33,42	280,29	306,15	19,96	23,72	12,26	85,74	150,82	10,43	1,20	367 (84)
1949	1	5,63	6,30	40,00	30,98	167,82	11,66	250,46	268,64	25,62	41,27	5,69	86,12	96,06	10,79	1,23	377 (36)
OTHER INDIAN SCHEDULED BANKS																	
1946	77	28,93	14,44	182,98	95,66	293,26	39,30	611,21	756,33	46,99	69,45	31,05	275,02	248,91	21,28	6,16	2,422(541)
1947	80	30,76	15,81	178,23	108,27	295,72	37,65	619,87	744,95	43,97	77,51	27,12	261,29	252,99	31,85	5,96	2,545(377)
1948	78	31,30	19,45	148,68	105,17	300,10	40,95	594,89	730,21	42,04	73,14	26,39	251,28	245,38	34,25	4,89	2,520(142)
1949	77	31,07	20,05	134,10	100,55	240,96	33,85	509,47	636,28	36,02	56,60	24,77	226,18	212,96	28,98	4,34	2,412(117)
NON-SCHEDULED BANKS—CLASS A2																	
1946	58	5,13	1,54	22,27	7,35	31,35	1,74	62,72	75,83	10,04	8,23	1,56	28,73	17,98	5,26	64	560(104)
1947	68	5,22	1,79	22,07	6,10	19,32	1,58	49,07	62,10	5,36	5,14	1,93	27,90	13,33	4,24	44	556 (35)
1948	72	5,18	2,32	18,82	6,87	18,95	1,44	46,08	57,92	4,62	3,35	1,47	27,61	12,83	3,88	25	567 (38)
1949	76	5,56	2,49	19,24	6,72	16,87	1,36	44,19	57,13	4,69	3,04	1,35	28,00	12,54	3,03	33	532 (29)
NON-SCHEDULED BANKS—CLASS B																	
1946	188	3,13	80	17,47	5,95	7,95	1,96	33,33	41,87	3,81	3,64	1,44	20,65	7,46	2,16	34	878 (37)
1947	185	2,99	88	15,50	4,52	5,99	1,50	27,51	35,09	2,80	2,64	1,22	18,65	6,09	1,57	36	743 (18)
1948	191	3,13	94	13,72	4,01	4,85	1,52	24,10	31,67	2,47	1,90	1,11	17,46	5,31	1,29	26	693 (5)
1949	187	3,00	98	11,97	3,58	3,76	1,23	20,54	27,57	2,02	1,34	76	15,73	4,80	1,07	24	650 (6)
NON-SCHEDULED BANKS—CLASS C																	
1946	128	72	17	2,72	52	1,27	68	5,19	6,68	53	57	18	4,01	51	38	4	279 (24)
1947	121	68	17	2,25	48	83	49	4,05	5,50	40	37	10	3,43	46	33	6	244 (4)
1948	119	67	18	2,08	35	60	48	3,50	4,84	37	24	9	3,24	28	22	5	211 (2)
1949	115	66	18	1,95	35	55	45	3,31	4,56	31	25	9	3,05	32	23	6	200 (2)
NON-SCHEDULED BANKS—CLASS D																	
1946	168	25	8	1,55	31	42	51	2,79	3,71	32	30	2	2,12	22	21	1	280 (18)
1947	170	26	10	1,45	33	59	32	2,69	3,50	30	26	2	2,12	9	20	2	273 (11)
1948	158	25	9	1,19	19	29	30	1,97	2,70	19	13	2	1,61	15	12	2	236 (1)
1949	129	21	8	1,00	19	23	17	1,59	2,00	13	7	—	1,37	6	10	2	185

* No. of offices outside the Indian Union are shown in brackets.

Comparative Position of Banks in India

(In lakhs of Rupees)

	Year	No. of Reporting Banks	Capital	Reserves	*Percentage of 4+5 to 11*	Deposits: Fixed	Savings	Current	Others	Total	Cash: In Hand	At Banks	*Percentage of 12+13 to 11*	Investments: Govt. Securities	Others	*Percentage of 15+16 to 11*	Loans and Advances	Bills Discounted & Purchased	*Percentage of 18+19 to 11*	No. of Offices*
Imperial Bank of India	1946	1	5,63	6,17	*4·34*	43,66	25,67	166,54	35,81	271,67	15,27	27,19	*15·63*	141,18	13,35	*56·88*	83,26	11,02	*34·70*	358 (87)
	1947	1	5,63	6,25	*4·15*	49,12	28,55	169,87	39,04	286,59	22,62	20,27	*14·97*	155,53	8,67	*57·29*	77,07	12,08	*31·11*	362 (86)
	1948	1	5,63	6,27	*4·25*	41,94	31,44	173,49	33,42	280,29	19,96	23,72	*15·58*	150,82	10,43	*57·53*	85,74	12,26	*34·96*	367 (84)
	1949	1	5,63	6,30	*4·*	40,00	30,98	167,82	11,66	250,46	25,62	41,27	*26·71*	96,06	10,79	*42·66*	86,12	5,69	*36·66*	377 (36)
Other Indian Scheduled Banks	1946	77	28,93	14,44	*7·10*	182,98	95,66	293,26	39,30	611,21	46,99	69,45	*19·05*	248,91	21,28	*44·21*	275,02	31,05	*50·08*	2,422 (541)
	1947	80	30,76	15,81	*7·51*	178,23	108,27	295,72	37,65	619,87	43,97	77,51	*19·60*	252,99	31,85	*45·95*	261,29	27,12	*46·53*	2,545 (377)
	1948	78	31,30	19,45	*8·53*	148,68	105,17	300,10	40,95	594,89	42,04	73,14	*19·36*	245,38	34,25	*47·01*	251,28	26,39	*46·66*	2,520 (142)
	1949	77	31,07	20,05	*10·03*	134,10	100,55	240,96	33,85	509,47	36,02	56,60	*15·69*	212,96	28,98	*47·49*	226,18	24,77	*42·50*	2,412 (117)
Scheduled Banks Registered Abroad	1946	16				17,50	8,43	147,96	7,00	180,88	5,53	18,18	*13·11*	..	..	..	63,69	7,58	*39·40*	77
	1947	16				21,50	9,19	136,91	5,93	173,53	5,78	25,36	*17·95*	..	..	..	86,87	10,68	*56·21*	80
	1948	16				27,87	10,56	123,65	4,88	166,96	4,81	12,96	*10·64*	..	..	..	105,23	10,38	*69·25*	74
	1949	16				30,36	10,49	120,57	5,14	166,56	2,32	17,07	*11·64*	49,15	1,13	*30·19*	105,62	16,49	*73·31*	75
Non-Scheduled Banks:—																				
(*i*) Banks having paid-up capital and reserves of Rs. 1 lakh and over.	1946	246	8,26	2,34	*11·04*	39,74	13,30	39,30	3,70	96,05	13,85	11,87	*26·78*	25,44	7,42	*34·21*	49,38	3,00	*54·53*	1,438 (141)
	1947	253	8,21	2,67	*14·21*	37,57	10,62	25,31	3,08	76,58	8,16	7,78	*20·81*	19,42	5,81	*32·95*	46,55	3,15	*64·90*	1,299 (53)
	1948	263	8,31	3,27	*16·50*	32,54	10,88	23,80	2,96	70,18	7,09	5,25	*17·58*	18,14	5,17	*33·22*	45,08	2,58	*67·91*	1,260 (43)
	1949	263	8,56	3,48	*18·60*	31,21	10,30	20,63	2,59	64,73	6,71	4,38	*17·13*	17,34	4,10	*33·12*	43,73	2,11	*70·82*	1,182 (35)
(*ii*) Banks having paid-up capital and reserves between Rs. 50,000 & Rs. 1 lakh.	1946	128	72	17	*17·15*	2,72	52	1,27	68	5,19	53	57	*21·19*	51	38	*17·15*	4,01	18	*18·73*	279 (24)
	1947	121	68	17	*20·99*	2,25	48	83	49	4,05	40	37	*19·01*	46	33	*19·51*	3,43	10	*87·16*	244 (4)
	1948	119	67	18	*24·28*	2,08	35	60	48	3,50	37	24	*17·43*	28	22	*14·29*	3,24	9	*95·14*	211 (2)
	1949	115	66	18	*25·38*	1,95	35	55	45	3,31	31	25	*16·92*	32	23	*16·62*	3,05	9	*94·86*	200 (2)
(*iii*) Banks having paid-up capital and reserves below Rs. 50,000.	1946	168	25	8	*11·83*	1,55	31	42	51	2,79	32	30	*22·22*	22	21	*15·41*	2,12	2	*76·70*	280 (18)
	1947	170	26	10	*13·38*	1,45	33	59	32	2,69	30	26	*20·82*	9	20	*10·78*	2,12	2	*79·55*	273 (11)
	1948	158	25	9	*17·26*	1,19	19	29	30	1,97	19	13	*16·24*	15	12	*13·71*	1,61	2	*82·74*	236 (1)
	1949	129	21	8	*18·24*	1,00	19	23	17	1,59	13	7	*12·58*	6	10	*10·06*	1,37	—	*86·16*	185
(*iv*) Banks Registered Abroad.	1946	12				40	8	19	1	69	7	9	*23·19*	..	..	..	39	1	*57·97*	32
	1947	7				41	7	11	5	64	5	6	*17·19*	..	..	..	23	—	*35·94*	16
	1948	4				28	5	5	4	42	2	7	*21·43*	..	..	..	6	—	*14·29*	4
	1949	4				22	5	4	1	32	2	8	*31·25*	3	1	*12·50*	6	—	*18·75*	5
Co-operative Banks :—										38,49	3,51		*9·12*	18,18		*47·23*	19,81		*51·47*	195 (1)
(*i*) Banks having paid-up capital and reserves of Rs. 5 lakhs and over.	1945-46	46	2,54	3,67	*16·13*	..	..	..	..	45,59	3,96		*8·69*	19,69		*43·19*	26,75		*58·70*	224
	1946-47	51	3,05	3,84	*15·11*	..	..	..	..	49,06	4,96		*10·11*	21,45		*43·72*	27,81		*56·70*	242
	1947-48	55	3,30	4,17	*15·23*	..	..	..	..	61,96	5,22		*8·42*	18,58		*29·99*	41,91		*67·64*	253
	1948-49	62	4,00	4,59	*13·86*	..	..	..	..											
(*ii*) Banks having paid-up capital and reserves between Rs. 1 lakh & Rs. 5 lakhs.	1945-46	239	2,34	2,71	*26·15*	..	..	..	..	19,31	3,08		*15·95*	7,99		*41·38*	11,01		*57·02*	311
	1946-47	258	2,50	2,76	*24·74*	..	..	..	..	21,25	2,72		*13·08*	8,04		*37·82*	13,69		*64·39*	324
	1947-48	267	2,73	2,81	*24·59*	..	..	..	..	22,53	3,18		*14·11*	7,71		*34·22*	15,53		*68·89*	339
	1948-49	295	3,05	3,04	*24·01*	..	..	..	..	25,30	3,18		*12·57*	8,00		*31·59*	18,90		*74·53*	376

*Offices outside the Indian Union are shown in brackets.

At the end of 1949 the aggregate paid-up capital of the 448 reporting banking companies, 90 scheduled and 358 non-scheduled, excluding those incorporated outside India, amounted to Rs. 39 crores. Of this amount, scheduled banks accounted for Rs. 33 crores. The scheduled banks constituted about 20 per cent. of the total number of banking companies but held nearly 85 per cent. of the aggregate share capital. The reserves of all the reporting banking companies on December 31, 1949 amounted to Rs. 26 crores of which the scheduled banks accounted for Rs. 24 crores. There were 39 banking companies with paid-up capital and reserves of over Rs. 25 lakhs and of these 13 had paid up capital and reserves of over Rs. one crore. Out of the 401 companies, 110 had paid-up capital and reserves of Rs. 5 lakhs and above, 141 had Rs. 1 lakh and above but below Rs. 5 lakhs, 67 had between Rs. 50,000 and Rs. 1 lakh and 83 had less than Rs. 50,000.

Owing to the rapid increase in deposits during the war years, the ratio of paid-up capital and reserves to deposits showed a downward trend in the case of both scheduled and non-scheduled banks till 1945. The ratio for scheduled banks dropped from 13 per cent. in 1939 to 6 per cent. in 1945 and that for non-scheduled banks from 24 per cent. in 1940 to 11 per cent. in 1945. Out of 401 banking companies, the reserves of 301 were less than their paid-up capital, while in the case of 243 banks, the reserves were less than 50 per cent. of the paid-up capital. The number of banks having no reserves was 40, three of which were scheduled banks.

The total demand and time deposits of banks stood at Rs. 844 crores on December 31, 1949 of which scheduled banks held Rs. 804 crores or approximately 95 per cent. The average demand and time liabilities showed a continuous rise from Rs. 241 crores in 1939 to Rs. 1,097 crores in 1948 (including Rs. 106 crores in Pakistan). The downward trend in bank deposits actually commenced towards the end of November 1946 and continued up to the first week of July 1947, the fall being from Rs. 1,097 crores on November 22, 1946 to Rs. 1,012 crores on July 4, 1947. The upward trend recommenced thereafter and continued till the end of July 1948, the total deposits rising to Rs. 1,117 crores. Since then there has been almost a continuous fall to Rs. 854 crores by the end of December 1949. The main reason for the rise was the war-time expansion of currency, while the serious fall in bank deposits can be broadly attributed to the adverse balance of trade, heavy incidence of taxation, high prices, repatriation of foreign capital and the disappearance of the princes.

While bank deposits down-trended since the middle of 1948, advances have tended to rise resulting in the contraction of the bank money. Funds to meet the heavy withdrawals on the one hand and fresh advances on the other were provided by banks partly by a reduction in their balances with the Reserve Bank and partly by a disposal of their Government security holding. The latter fell from Rs. 467 crores in October 1948 to Rs. 321 crores in May 1949. In September they stood higher at Rs. 367 crores as compared with Rs. 365 crores in March 1949 but with the reappearance of the busy season, they receded to Rs. 340 crores in December 1949.

On December 30, 1949 loan and advances of the 448 reporting banks totalled Rs. 402 crores of which the scheduled banks accounted for Rs. 372 crores or nearly 93 per cent. The returns under the Reserve Bank of India Act, however, showed them at Rs. 410 crores at the end of 1949 as against Rs. 442 crores at the end of 1948. During 1949, the ratio of advances and bills discounted to the toal deposits of scheduled banks varied between 46 and 56 as against 41 and 46 in 1948. In the case of exchange banks, the proportion is higher.

There was a continuous growth in the number of offices of banking companies up to 1947, the rise being most spectacular in 1943, 1944 and 1945. While there was a small rise during 1947, there was a steep fall of 852 during 1948 mostly due to the partition of the country. In 1949 there was again a rise. The unhealthy development was aggravated by a tendency to open branches in the larger cities and towns which had already adequate banking facilities resulting in diversion of business and cut-throat competition.

The total number of offices of the 444 reporting banks, 93 scheduled and 351 non-scheduled, was 3,490 on December 31, 1949. Of these scheduled banks had 2,515 offices. The 15 exchange banks had 63 offices in India of which 20 were in West Bengal. The offices of the remaining 78 scheduled banks aggregated 2,452. These were concentrated chiefly in the States of Madras, Uttar Pradesh, Bombay, Punjab and West Bengal, while the offices of non-scheduled banks were concentrated mostly in Madras with more than 50 per cent. offices, *viz.*, 503, followed by Bombay with 179. Although the total number of banking offices in India at the end of 1949 was 4,778, the actual number of towns served by them was 1,510, while 980 towns had no banking office at all.

The detailed analysis of tne banking trends in this country can be found in the Reserve Bank of India's Annual Report On The Trend And Progress of Banking In India for the period ended December 31, 1949.

Review of 1950

A comparison of the statement of affairs of scheduled banks for December 1950 with the corresponding figures for December 1949 reveals that the number of reporting scheduled banks was unchanged at 94. The demand deposits rose from Rs. 594.69 crores to Rs. 598.98 crores and time liabilities from Rs. 268.97 crores to Rs. 281.58 crores. The rise was mainly attributable to the spread of banking and the increase in note circulation. The combined deposits at Rs. 880.56 crores showed a net gain of Rs. 25.90 crores. With the rise in the deposits was the increase in the cash in India by Rs. 1.13 crores ; but the demand for bank finance being heavier, the interest-free balances with the Reserve Bank fell from Rs. 73.54 crores to Rs. 65.50 crores. Consequently, the ratio of cash in hand and balances with the Reserve Bank to total deposits was lower at Rs. 11.42 at the end of 1950 as against 12.52 in 1949.

The demand for funds was greater in the busy season of 1950 than in the preceding season owing to a larger outlay for stock building consequent on the rise in the commodity prices in the latter half of the year. Advances in India amounted to Rs. 415.48 crores at the end of the year under review as against Rs. 389.97 crores a year ago. Bills discounted were, however, slightly at a lower level. The percentage of advances to deposits worked out at 48.68 for December 1950 as compared with 47.36 in the same month for 1949, the highest ratio being recorded in April 1950.

The following table sums up the position of banking companies :—

	Dec. 1949	Aug. 1950
SCHEDULED BANKS :		
No of Reporting Banks	90	92
	crores	crores
Paid-up capital and Reserve	56·50	59·04
Deposits	803·10	833·32
Cash & Balances with Reserve Bank ..	117·02	111·08
Balances with other banks & call money	15·45	20·40
Investments :		
Government Securities	339·83	356·91
Others	21·61	23·58
Ratio of Investments to Deposits ..	45·0	45·7
Loans and Advances..	371·23	396·40
Ratio of Loans to Deposits	46·2	47·6
ALL BANKING COMPANIES :		
No. of Reporting Banks	448	442
Paid-up Capital and Reserves	Crores 64·41	Crores 67·62
Deposits	843·10	871·24
Cash & Balances with Reserve Bank ..	120·63	113·99
Balances with other Banks & call money	17·60	22·23
Investments :		
Government Securities	349·76	366·79
Others	24·43	26·30
Ratio of Investments to Deposits ..	44·4	45·1
Loans and Advances	401·61	426·49
Ratio of Loans to Deposits	47·6	49·0

BANKING LEGISLATION

Ever since 1913 when the banking crisis in this country stressed the need for separate legislation to govern the working of banks, this problem has been confronting the authorities. The Indian Central Banking Inquiry Committee examined the question in greater detail and advocated legislation for a Special Bank Act covering the various aspects of banking. Owing to the outbreak of War and subsequent constitutional developments, this measure could not be passed through the legislature. However, some of its more urgent provisions were brought into effect either by the amendment of the Company law or by the issue of Ordinances.

The Bill to consolidate and amend the law relating to banking companies (otherwise known as the Banking Companies Bill), as reported by the Select Committee, was passed by the Indian Dominion Parliament on February 17, 1949 and brought into effect from March 16. The legislation, called the Banking Companies Act 1949, marks the culmination of the long and chequered career of the proposal for a Banking Companies Bill, first mooted in 1939. It attempts to consolidate with certain modifications the relevant provisions concerning banking companies, contained in the Indian Companies Act, 1913, and various *ad hoc* measures like the Banking Companies (Restriction of Branches) Act, 1946, the Banking Companies (Inspection) Ordinance, 1946, and the Banking Companies (Control) Ordinance, 1948, that were adopted from time to time pending comprehensive legislation.

The Act regulates all banking companies and covers all the States of India. Banking has been defined as " the accepting, for the purpose of lending or investment, of deposits of money from the public, repayable on demand or otherwise, and withdrawable by cheque, draft, order or otherwise." Co-operative banks, however, have been excluded from the scope of the Act.

All banks working in India are to be licensed. The licence is to be issued by the Reserve Bank, which may require to be satisfied that the applicant bank is in a sound position, and further in respect of a foreign bank, that the law of the country in which it is incorporated does not discriminate in any way against banking companies registered in India. It also prescribes the forms of business in which banking companies may engage.

The Act lays down the minimum requirements relating to the paid-up capital and reserves of a bank incorporated in India ; these requirements vary according to the geographical coverage of its operations. It prohibits employment of managing agents and imposes restrictions on certain forms of employment.

Scheduled banks continue to be required to keep minimum reserves with the Reserve Bank and to submit weekly returns under the Reserve Bank of India Act, 1934. All banks other than the scheduled banks are now required to maintain in cash with them or with the Reserve Bank, or partly in cash with them and partly with the Reserve Bank, 2 per cent. and 5 per cent. of their time and demand liabilities respectively, and to submit monthly returns giving details of cash held and time and demand liabilities as on each Friday of the month.

All banking companies are required, two years after the commencement of the Act, to maintain 20 per cent. of their demand and time liabilities in India in cash, gold or unencumbered approved securities, valued at a price not exceeding the current market price. They have also to maintain in the Provinces and Acceding States assets representing 75 per cent. of their demand and time liabilities at the end of each quarter.

The Act prohibits inter-locking directorates among banking companies and the employment of managing agents. It also prohibits the granting of unsecured loans or advances to any of the directors, or to firms in which the directors are interested. Monthly returns are to be submitted to the Reserve Bank relating to unsecured loans to companies in which the directors are interested. The payment of dividends on shares is also banned until all capitalised expenses are completely written off. Until the reserve fund equals the paid up capital, at least 20 per cent. of the profit must go to the reserve fund.

The Reserve Bank has now the power, on a permanent statutory basis, to control not only the scheduled but also the non-scheduled banks, and, therefore, the entire joint-stock banking system. It may give directions to banking companies in regard to their lending policies; the purposes for which advances may or may not be made, the margins to be maintained, and the rate of interest to be charged on advances. It may caution or prohibit banking companies generally or any banking company in particular, against entering into any particular transaction or class of transactions. It may call for periodical as well as *ad hoc* returns, and, in the public interest, it may also publish such information in any consolidated form it deems fit. It may inspect any bank either on its own initiative or on being directed to do so by the Government. The Reserve Bank's prior permission is required for the opening of new branches and the transfer of existing ones.

The Reserve Bank has also been given certain powers in respect of voluntary winding up and amalgamations of banking companies, and it may, on applying for it, be appointed as official liquidator.

The Reserve Bank is required to make an annual report to the Central Government on the trend and progress of banking in the country, with suggestions, if any, for the strengthening of the banking business in the country.

In March 1950 the Act was amended mainly with the object of prescribing an easy procedure for the amalgamation of banks or their liquidation.

Indigenous Bankers

Long before the establishment of joint-stock banking companies in India or Pakistan indigenous bankers or *shroffs* flourished. Even at present they form an important credit agency in the banking system and are the only source of credit in many parts of the sub-continent. The difference between *shroffs* and money-lenders is that while the latter work generally with their own capital, the former use borrowed capital also either in the form of deposits from the public or by drawing and rediscounting *hundies*. A certain number of indigenous *shroffs* work on modern lines and transact all kinds of business which the ordinary joint stock banks transact, including the issue of pass books and cheque books. They do not, however, publish balance sheets and their management is entirely in the hands of a single proprietor or a firm of proprietors.

No reliable estimates of the capital employed by indigenous bankers are available; but it is recognised that amongst the agencies financing agriculture, internal trade and small industries, they occupy a prominent position. Their operations are not attended with formalities and delay, and the majority of them combine banking with some form of trade and the capital employed in banking is not distinguished from that employed in trade.

In Bombay indigenous bankers on the approved lists of joint-stock banks get advances from these banks upto their respective limits. Banks also make advances against *shroffs' hundies*, the period for which is usually 60 days. In all Provinces, the indigenous bankers get remittance facilities from the Imperial Bank on the same terms as the general public do.

In pursuance of the recommendations of the Central Banking Inquiry Committee for linking indigenous bankers with the country's central banking institution, the Reserve Bank of India, on its formation, opened negotiations; but no agreement materialised since the indigenous bankers felt that the conditions laid down were rather irksome. The question was brought up for discussion again in 1946 when the Central Assembly considered the Banking Bill. The Select Committee has now suggested that indigenous bankers should be brought in line with joint-stock banks and the difficulties in the way of extending the legislation to them should be examined.

The Interest Structure

Recent monetary theory looks on money rates as the basic influence at work in respect of a country's economy. Banks work within the conditions set by interest rates which, in turn, are regulated, under the modern monetary technique, by the central banking institution of a country. The yield on a non-terminable Government security is generally looked upon as a barometer of long-term interest rates, while the rate of the Imperial Bank on demand loans represents earnings on short term investments. The Imperial Bank's *hundi* rate is the rate at which the Bank discounts first class trade bills. The call money rate is the rate for surplus money seeking investment and repayable at the option of the borrower or the lender subject to a minimum period of 24 hours. Bazaar Bill rates are the highest rates in the Indian money market and they are the rates charged by *shroffs*.

In the monetary history of the sub-continent the normal relationship between the short-term money rates and the long-term money rates is that the former stands higher than the latter. For three decades in the last century, the excess ranged between one and two per cent.; but since then, the difference has narrowed down and the latest tendency is that the short-term loan rates are actually lower than the long-term interest rates. This is mainly due to the exceptional demand of Government for loans.

Formerly each Presidency Bank fixed its own Bank rate which was not uniform. After the amalgamation of the Presidency Banks the Imperial Bank fixed the rate for the whole of the sub-continent until July 4, 1935 when the right to fix the official Bank rate was exercised by the Reserve Bank. The rate fixed represents the rate charged by the banks on demand loans against Government securities and is the standard rate at which the Reserve Bank is prepared to buy or rediscount bills of exchange or other commercial paper eligible for purchase under the Reserve Bank of India Act. This rate enables the Reserve Bank to have direct contact with short-term rates and the money market and to encourage or discourage scheduled banks to obtain more cash.

Since the beginning of the busy season in October 1948 the money market began to display a hardening tendency. Conditions grew tighter from January 1950 though the 1949-50 busy season on the whole witnessed less stringent money conditions than the previous one owing to treasury bill maturities of Rs. 36 crores early in the season, the stalemate in the Indo-Pakistan trade, more severe import restrictions and the effects of devaluation. These conditions, however, proved temporary and the busy season in 1950-51 witnessed monetary stringency to an extent which tempted banks to put up their lending rates and prompted occasional rumours about the end of the cheap money era.

Money Rates.—The following is the trend of the short-term money rates in the country since 1938-39 :—

Year.	Bank Rate.	Imperial Bank *Hundi* Rate.		Call Money Bombay.		Bazar Bill Bombay.		Average Treasury Bill Rate.	Annual Deposits.	
		High.	Low.	Highest.	Lowest.	H.	L.		H.	L.
1938-39	3	3	3	2¾	¼	5⅝	3	1·63	2	1¼
1939-40	3	3¼	3	2¼	¼	6¼	5¼	1·86	2	1¼
1940-41	3	3¼	3	1¾	¼	6¼	5¼	0·89	2	1¾
1941-42	3	3	3	¼	¼	6¾	4¼	0·82	2	1¼
1942-43	3	3	3	¼	¼	6¾	5	0·87	2	1¼
1943-44	3	3	3	¼	¼	6	4¼	0·90	1¾	1
1944-45	3	3	3	¼	¼	5¼	4¼	0·49	1¾	1
1945-46	3	3	3	1	¼	5¼	5¼	0·38	1¾	1¼
1946-47	3	3	3	¾	¼	7¼	5¼	0·43	1¾	1¼
1947-48	3	3	3	¼	¼	7¼	7¼	0·45	2	1¼
1948-49	3	3	3	1	½	8¼	7¼	0·49	2	1¾
1949-50	3	3½	3	1¼	½	8¼	7½	0·51	2	1¾

Relative Rates.—The relationship between the long-term interest rates as represented by the yield on non-terminable Government loan and the short-term interest rates is established in the following table :—

Year.	Yield on 3½ p.c. Rupee Security.	Average Bank rate.	Excess or Deficit of 2 over 1.
1870 ..	4·3	5·16	+ 0·86
1880 ..	4·3	5·01	+ 0·71
1890 ..	4·0	5·92	+ 2·07
1900 ..	3·64	5·51	+ 1·87
1910 ..	3·72	5·47	+ 1·74
1920 ..	5·9	6·20	+ 0·07
1930 ..	5·1	5·88	+ 0·78
1931 ..	5·5	7·04	+ 1·54
1932 ..	5·7	5·02	— 0·70
1933 ..	4·3	3·56	— 0·74
1934 ..	3·9	3·50	— 0·40
1935 ..	..	3·46	..
1936 ..	3·52	3·00	— 0·52
1937 ..	3·63	3·00	— 0·63
1938 ..	3·55	3·00	— 0·55

Year.	Yield on 3 p.c. Rupee Security.	Average Bank rate.	Excess or Deficit of 2 over 1.
1940-41* ..	3·79	3·0	— 0·79
1941-42 ..	3·69	3·0	— 0·69
1942-43 ..	3·77	3·0	— 0·77
1943-44 ..	3·57	3·0	— 0·57
1944-45 ..	3·33	3·0	— 0·33
1945-46 ..	3·14	3·0	— 0·14
1946-47 ..	2·90	3·0	+ 0·10
1947-48 ..	3·03	3·0	— 0·03
1948-49 ..	3·03	3·0	— 0·03
1949-50 ..	3·07	3·0	— 0·07
Dec. 1950 ..	3·22	3·0	— 0·22

* From this year, the yield is on 3 per cent. Rupee Paper.

Clearing Houses.—The Principal Clearing Houses in India are those of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras and of these the first two are by far the most important. In 1946-47 Clearing Houses were opened at Alleppey, Rajkot and Gaya and are being managed by the Imperial Bank of India. This brings the total number of Clearing Houses under the management of the Imperial Bank to19. In Bombay, a Metropolitan Clearing Association was formed and registered in October 1946 to arrange for clearing for non-scheduled banks as to the Bombay Bankers' Clearing House decided restrict its membership and sub-membership only to scheduled banks.

Cheque clearances in the Indian Union declined to Rs. 6,198 crores in 1949-50 from Rs. 6,687 crores in the previous year. The fall of seven per cent. is in contrast with a rise of Rs. 536 crores in the preceding year and would seem to reflect in part the lower level of business activity brought about mainly by restrictive import policies and the Indo-Pakistan trade deadlock. The bulk of the decline for the year was in Calcutta and Bombay, the former accounting for Rs. 299 crores and the latter Rs. 139 crores. The decline in Calcutta would appear to have been affected, in addition to the factors mentioned above, by the banking crisis of February 1950 and by the 'incidents' in the two Bengals towards the end of the year.

The annual velocity of circulation of demand liabilities in the Indian Union was 10.4 per cent. in 1949-50 and 9.9 per cent. in 1948-49. The higher velocity in 1949-50 reflects a relatively larger reduction in demand liabilities than in cheque clearances. The velocity of circulation has been fairly constant since 1942-43 being around 9-10 per cent. and considerably below the pre-war level of about 15 per cent.

RURAL BANKING INQUIRY COMMITTEE

The Rural Banking Enquiry Committee was appointed by the Government of India on November 8, 1949, with Mr. Purushotamdas Thakurdas as Chairman and Mr. C. H. Bhabha as Vice-Chairman. The terms of reference *inter alia* were :—1. To consider measures that can be immediately adopted for the extension of banking facilities in rural areas. 2. To review in this connection the present arrangements for the management of the cash work at Government treasuries and sub-treasuries including those where the work is at present managed by the Imperial Bank of India. 3. To consider to what extent the extension of banking facilities will be facilitated by entrusting the cash work at government treasuries and sub-treasuries at places where the work is not at present being managed by the Imperial Bank of India to commercial banks and co-operative banks.

The following is a summary of the recommendations :—

(*a*) For the smaller people in rural areas, emphas ; will largely have to be placed on the expansio and more effective utilisation of machinery like post office savings banks and co-operative societies. Attempts will also have to be made to promote thrift and small savings by means of propaganda and group effort utilised to the maximum possible extent.

(*b*) The internal capital needs for the economic development of the country during the coming years will be very large, and rural savings will have to be fully mobilised to play a due part in such development.

(*c*) In any scheme for a sound and efficient system of agricultural finance, sufficient emphasis must be laid on the building up of a sound structure of primary institutions—whether co-operative credit societies or multi-purpose societies. The weakness of the co-operative structure seems to lie mainly in the institution themselves and more thought and effort should be devoted to their development. The generally favoured plan now is the establishment of strong multi-purpose societies able to employ competent paid staff for each group of contiguous villages. These attempts should be encouraged by the Provincial Governments by providing the necessary staff for inspection and supervision.

(*d*) While the establishment of new organisations, *e.g.*, Agricultural Credit Corporations or Agricultural Banks, may be necessary in some regions such as the former Indian States, full use should be made of the existing institutions.

(*e*) A satisfactory machinery to deal with the credit needs of "disadvantaged" farmers will have to be developed gradually, and the task will, in the first instance, have to be undertaken on an experimental basis.

(*f*) To enable commercial banks, co-operative banks and land mortgage banks to play an effective role in extending rural credit, it would be necessary to review the existing and proposed legislation concerning debt relief, money-lending, tenancy, and land tenures in so far as it may affect their position.

(*g*) The Imperial Bank and other commercial banks should be allowed and encouraged to expand up to taluka (or tehsil) towns, mandis or market towns, or other towns of some commercial or industrial importance. An expansion in the number of offices of the Imperial Bank is desirable in the interest of the rural areas as well as of the banking system as a whole. Co-operative banks can be established in the larger as well as smaller towns, and can go deeper into rural areas than commercial banks. Small villages can only be served by co-operative societies and rural post office savings banks.

(*h*) The grant of direct cash subsidies to support rural branches of banks is not recommended. (*i*) The types of assistance to be offered to banks must generally be in the nature of indirect stimuli available to all banking institutions. (*j*) Impediments to the growth of the banking system arising from the deficit character of agriculture in this country could be removed only gradually by a comprehensive rural development programme. (*k*) The payment of a higher rate of interest on deposits at the rural branches of banks is neither practicable nor desirable. (*l*) In so far as high operating costs of rural branches are due to the application of Shops and Establishments Act and the awards of Industrial Tribunals, it is recommended that such acts and awards should not be made applicable to offices of banks situated in towns having a population of less than 50,000. (*m*) Liberalisation of remittance facilities would encourage banks to open branches in the country-side and would lead to other beneficial results.

(*n*) More active steps than hitherto taken for the promotion of ware-housing are urgently needed, and, as a short-term measure, the establishment of a Warehousing Development Board with funds contributed by the Central Government, the Reserve Bank and the Provincial and State Governments is recommended. (*o*) Co-operative banks and societies would need special assistance and some subsidies in addition to the concessions and privileges they are already enjoying.

(*p*) The procedure and working of the post office savings bank should be examined in detail by an officer with banking experience. (*q*) The introduction of mobile banks on any considerable scale in this country under the present conditions is not recommended. (*r*) The following measures suggested by the Reserve Bank are essential to bring the working of treasuries and sub-treasuries to the required level of efficiency :—(1) The treasury and sub-treasury officers should be completely divested of their magisterial and other duties not connected with treasury work. (2) There should be a complete separation of the treasury (or accounts) cadre from the general cadre. (3) Systematic arrangements should be made for the training of the staff at the offices of the Reserve Bank and the Accountant-General. (*s*) Although a change from the existing system in which the Imperial Bank functions as the sole agent of the Reserve Bank may result in a reduction in the number of non-bank treasuries, and also in some addition to branches of banks it is not desirable to effect the change under the present conditions.

Imperial Bank

(*t*) It would not be in the interest of the country to do anything which will weaken or impair the organisational and financial strength of the Imperial Bank towards the building of which much of the nation's efforts and resources have been spent. The present unsatisfactory features of the working of the Imperial Bank can be remedied by legislative and other measures. The role of the Imperial Bank in the future banking and treasury set-up of the country should primarily be that of an auxiliary to the Reserve Bank. (*u*) The change in the political status

CLEARING HOUSE STATISTICS

(Rs. in lakhs)

Year	Bombay	Calcutta	Delhi	Kanpur	Madras	Grand Total including other Centres
1918-19 .. .	5,69,46	7,41,13	—	—	25,45	13,58,34
1928-29	6,52,35	10,94,00	—	7,31	65,73	18,56,10
1938-39	7,86,22	9,34,65	18,58	11,76	98,91	19,21,45
1947-48	24,52,64	25,99,96	1,26,46	1,09,83	3,47,94	64,80,14
1948-49	27,38,53	26,55,26	1,48,68	1,40,46	4,02,02	66,86,54
1949-50	25,99,80	23,56,18	1,40,30	1,28,56	3,74,64	61,97,92
1950						
April	2,33,44	1,68,77	11,90	13,36	28,78	5,09,34
May	2,44,40	1,77,50	12,36	13,42	31,42	5,36,47
June	2,22,40	1,73,33	11,25	11,62	30,48	4,99,90
July	2,10,31	1,76,33	11,48	10,00	33,31	4,93,08
August	2,38,47	2,01,83	11,92	10,84	35,81	5,54,56
September	1,90,29	1,93,94	11,23	9,84	33,56	4,84,17
October	1,88,87	1,82,97	11,31	10,86	34,46	4,75,96
November	2,13,78	2,11,98	11,54	9,86	34,82	5,24,97
December	2,40,93	2,10,08	12,58	11,43	36,32	5,58,48

of the country should eliminate complaints against the Bank which arise from political causes.

As regards other complaints from the banking and business community, the following remedial measures are suggested :—(*i*) Some of the important powers vested in Government by the Imperial Bank of India Act, 1920, which were allowed to lapse in 1934, should be re-assumed by Government. The appointment of the Managing Director and the Deputy Managing Director should be subject to the approval of the Central Government who should also have the right to demand their removal from office if they do not continue to enjoy Government's confidence. The Government Director on the Board of the Bank should be empowered to ask for the postponement of decisions on questions having a bearing on the national policy of the Government and for the review of those already taken. Government representation on the Central Board should be more effective and nominated directors should have seats on the Committee of the Central Board and be entitled to participate and vote at all meetings of the Committee. Alternatively, the constitution of the Bank should be changed on the model of that of the other commercial banks, placing the overall policy and the general superintendence of the Bank in charge of a Chairman whose appointment would be subject to the approval of the Central Government, and a Board of Directors, two of whom will be nominated by the Government, while the day-to-day internal working of the Bank would be entrusted to a General Manager who will be an employee of the Bank and will not have a seat on the Board.

(*ii*) The power of the Bank to execute proxies on behalf of share-holders under general powers of attorney should be removed, and in view of the special and semi-public character of the Bank the provision of clauses (*iii*) and (*iv*) of Section 12 of the Banking Companies Act, 1949 should be made applicable to it.

(*iii*) The cost to the Imperial Bank of managing the chests, and the monetary value of the various benefits it derives from their use should be worked out in detail by the Reserve Bank in consultation with the Imperial Bank, and it may be ascertained whether remittance facilities allowed to other banks cannot be extended beyond those recommended in paragraph 46(*a*) of the Report.

(*iv*) To provide fuller representation to the various regional interests on its Local and Central Boards, the Bank may be asked to establish one or two additional Local Head Offices.

(*v*) The present organisation of the Imperial Bank does not also seem to be adequate for large-scale expansion in the former Indian States, in addition to the expansion recommended in the Governor's Provinces.

(*w*) It would not be advisable to take a final and irrevocable decision on the question of conduct of cash work in the former States at the present stage. Arrangements should be made to carry on the cash work for five years, largely with the existing machinery, and the existing agreements with the various banks should be allowed to run their course so long as they are not inconsistent with the scheme of Federal financial integration and the new set-up. During this period only such adjustments should be effected as is incidental to Federal financial integration and the appointment of the Reserve Bank as banker to all State Governments.

(*x*) At the end of 5 years from the 1st April 1950, the whole question of the management of cash work at the treasuries and sub-treasuries in the States and the feasibility or otherwise of entrusting that work to the banks now handling it, or to any other agency or agencies, should be re-examined by another committee.

(*y*) The proposal that the Reserve Bank should establish a large number of its branches and manage Government cash work at all treasuries and sub-treasuries is not supported. It is, however, recognised that the present organisation of the Reserve Bank is inadequate to meet the requirements of the country, and energetic steps should be taken to secure the establishment of a branch of the Bank at the headquarters of each of the major Governors' States and of the Rajpramukh States, special attention being paid to the requirements of States where the Reserve Bank has no office at present.

The proposal for the formation of a new State-sponsored bank, which has to be examined in the light of the recommendation for the conduct of cash work in the States is considered unnecessary. The Imperial Bank is, to all intents and purposes, functioning as a State-sponsored bank, and the people can legitimately look forward to its being developed as a national institution. The multiplication of institutions performing similar functions and competing with one another with State-aid is not desirable.

STOCK EXCHANGE

THE earliest reference to stock broking in India dates back to the end of the 18th century when transactions in Government securities and the shares of the East India Company used to take place in Calcutta under a *neem* tree. Similar references are also available about business in shares in Bombay before 1840. The boom following the American Civil war gave a great impetus to this business.

The Native Share and Stock Brokers' Association of Bombay was formally constituted by an indenture dated December 3, 1887. It has now about 450 members on its roll who carry on business in the Brokers' Hall bought in 1887 from the funds of the Association. Trading is governed by the rules framed by the Governing Board. The value of a broker's card fluctuated according to the volume of business in the market. Prior to 1939 it fluctuated between Rs. 8,000 and Rs. 20,000; in 1946 when business was brisk and the share market was in the best form, the sale of a card fetched Rs. 66,000; and at present it is around Rs. 32,000.

This is the only share market where forward business used to be conducted in an organised way. This business is governed by separate rules approved by the Government of Bombay under powers vested in them by the Bombay Securities Contract Control Act. This legislation was enacted in 1925 in pursuance of the recommendations made by the Stock Exchange Inquiry Committee in 1923, with Sir Wilfrid Atlay as President.

Thirteen years later, the Government of Bombay appointed a Committee, with Mr. W. B. Morison as Chairman, "to examine and report on the organisation and methods of working of the Native Share and Stock Brokers' Association, to consider whether any modifications are desirable in the interests of the investing public and to make recommendations."

The wild orgy of speculation that started in the share markets all over the country in 1943 called for Governmental action. On September 11, 1943, the Government of India issued Rule 94-C under the Defence of India Rules, prohibiting with effect from the 24th of that month all stock exchanges in India from permitting or affording facilities for *budla* transactions or for the making of any contracts other than for ready delivery contracts. Speaking about the working of this Rule at the annual meeting of the Native Share and Stock Brokers' Association in 1945, Mr. K. R. P. Shroff, however, complained that instead of achieving the objective, the Rule had only created "grey" markets all over the country. In December 1945, this rule expired following the termination of the War and trading in shares is being conducted on a ready delivery basis, the account being settled every fortnight.

Bombay Bill.—In 1947 the Government of Bombay enacted comprehensive legislation to control and regulate forward trading in the Province by consolidating the existing laws including the Bombay Securities Contract Control Act. The Act vests wide powers in Government in the matter of framing the rules of a recognised trade body and superseding its Governing Board. It also provides for Government recognition of an association for purposes of forward training. The rules and bye-laws of a recognized association have to be approved by the Government and no alterations or additions thereto shall be made without their prior approval. The Government have also the power to add to, vary or rescind any rules or bye-laws of the recognized association. It makes contracts, hitherto known as void, a penal offence, defines a ready delivery contract and bans trading in forward contracts at any place other than the trading hall of a recognised association.

In the present conditions of trading, the basis is the "ready" delivery contract even though the account is cleared every fortnight. This type of trading is not subject to Government control. The Government of India have been considering the possibility of instituting an all India control over stock markets since 1945. Under the new constitution this is a Central subject.

Besides the premier share market in Bombay, occasional attempts were made in the city to have an additional share market. In 1917 the Bombay Stock Exchange Ltd. was registered, but it ceased to function after a brief period. A new stock market was opened in 1938 under the name of the Indian Stock Exchange, Ltd.

Calcutta Association.—The Calcutta Stock Exchange Association was founded at No. 2, New China Bazar Road (now known as 2, Royal Exchange Place), Calcutta, with 150 founder members in 1908. Fifteen years later, it was registered as a limited liability concern. The Association is controlled and managed by a Committee and has a membership of 232 brokers.

The only registered institution in South India of brokers dealing in shares and securities is the Madras Stock Exchange Association, Ltd., registered in 1937.

During the boom period several stock markets were started at other industrial centres. These include Delhi and Kanpur.

The Ahmedabad Stock Exchange is also a registered body and recognised by the Government of Bombay under the Bombay Securities Contract Control Act.

Among the former States Hyderabad has a stock market of its own.

CAPITAL MARKET

Until the beginning of the Second World War the capital market had made a slow but steady progress; but its pace quickly accelerated during the War period when the monetary inflation and the rising trend of industrial profits served as a first class stimulant to its growth which was spectacular. The post-war period has, however, served mainly towards consolidating the early gains. A broad idea of the expansion of the market can be had from the fact that between 1938-39 and 1946-47, the interest-bearing obligations of the Government of India increased by Rs. 1,176 crores, while consent for the issue of capital was granted to the tune of Rs. 640½ crores from May 17, 1943 to March 31, 1947.

Following the budget proposals for 1947-48, the capital market received a rude shock from which it has not fully recovered in spite of Government's efforts to promote capital formation. The political conditions, the economic malaise, and mismanagement in certain industries have led to loss of confidence in investment values and the share markets are now mainly in the hands of professional operators.

Following the partition of the country, the newly constituted Government of India decided to continue the taxation at a high level. They also announced their views on nationalisation of industries and undertook legislation to limit the dividends which curtailed the purchasing power of the investor. On the labour front awards of industrial courts and arbitrators created serious misgivings and wage costs increased while output per worker fell There were several bank failures also and abuses of company management and floatation of new companies without due regard to sound principles accentuated the situation in the capital market.

There were signs of a return of public confidence in the capital market since September 1949. The flow of savings was, however, still small as a result of the reduced capacity to save on the part of the income groups who, in the past, had been the main support of the investment market and the post-war redistribution of national income in favour of the rural and lower income groups. On Government loan account there was a net outgo of Rs. 20 crores in 1949-50. The respective figures for 1948-49 and 1947-48 being Rs. 42 crores and Rs. 16 crores. The response to private issues in 1949-50 was small and where they were successful, the interest offered was higher than in the recent past.

CONTROL OF CAPITAL ISSUES

To canalise the resources of the capital market in Government loans, the Government of India introduced on May 17, 1943 control over capital issues. The control passed through several forms, namely, (1) discouragement of long-range schemes till April 1944, (2) relaxation in regard to long-range schemes from April 1944 onwards, (3) exemption of companies other than banking and insurance companies for capital not exceeding Rs. one lakh with effect from August 1945 and (4) the raising of this exemption limit further to Rs. 5 lakhs in December 1945.

The Government of India introduced in March 1947 a Bill "to secure a balanced investment of the country's resources in industry, agriculture and the social services". The law, which was finally passed, was for a period of three years. It imposed on the Central Government an obligation to communicate to the applicant the reasons for refusal of permission and provided for the machinery of an advisory committee.

Control over capital issues continued during 1949-50 and the Capital Issues (Continuance of Control) Act passed in March 1950 extended the control upto March 1952. The amount sanctioned in 1949 was Rs. 63.03 crores in respect of 326 companies or half of that sanctioned in the previous year (Rs. 125.57 crores) and one-fourth of that in 1946 (Rs. 240.47 crores). As in the previous years, immediate schemes predominated, and group-wise, a majority of the schemes related to industrial ventures.

During 1950, 320 applications for the issue of capital amounting to Rs. 85.08 crores were received as against 387 applications for Rs. 78.47 crores in 1949. There is a fall of 17 per cent. in the number of applications received, but a rise in their value of about eight per cent. as compared to the previous year. Out of the applications received in 1950, 194 were from industrial companies for the issue of Rs. 66.10 crores, of which 29 applications for Rs. 6 crores were refused. The refusals relate mainly to issue of bonus shares by companies which did not have sufficient reserves for Capitalisation or desired to issue bonus shares on revaluation of assets. 126 non-industrial Companies applied for a total Capital of Rs. 18.98 crores of which 28 applications for Rs. 3.74 crores were refused, banks and insurance companies forming a large percentage of refusal under this group.

During 1950, 53 applications for issue of Capital of Rs. 4.08 crores to non-residents were received out of which 11 for Rs. 73.59 lakhs were refused. The refusal related mainly to companies which had only trading programmes in view and had not suggested any programme for manufacture.

INDUSTRIAL FINANCE CORPORATION

Under the Industrial Finance Corporation Act, a Corporation was established on July 1, 1948 to provide medium and long-term finance to public limited companies and co-operative societies registered in India, including the acceding States, and engaged in the manufacture or processing of goods or in mining or in the generation or distribution of electricity or any other form of power. Individuals, partnership firms or private limited companies are thus excluded from the purview of the Corporation's operations. The authorised share capital is Rs. 10 crores, divided into 20,000 shares of Rs. 5,000 each, the paid up capital being Rs. 5 crores in respect of 10,000 shares issued. To this issue, the Central Government and the Reserve Bank of India subscribed Rupees one crore each, the scheduled banks and financial institutions like insurance companies and investment trusts, Rs. 1¼ crores each, and co-operative banks Rs. ½ crore. The paid-up value of the share capital and dividends on it at the minimum rate of 2¼ per cent. per annum are guaranteed by the Government. The Board of Directors consists of twelve members, of whom four are nominated by the Central Government and two by the Reserve Bank of India, and six are representatives of scheduled banks, insurance companies, investment trusts and other financial institutions.

The Corporation is authorised to borrow up to five times the amount of its paid-up capital and reserve fund. When the Reserve Fund equals the authorised capital of Rs. 10 crores, the borrowing capacity of the Corporation will be Rs. 100 crores. The Corporation may also accept deposits for periods of not less than five years, but the total deposits accepted may not exceed Rs. 10 crores. It is empowered to provide financial assistance in the following ways:

(*i*) grant loans or subscribe to debentures of industrial concerns repayable within a period of 25 years secured by sufficient pledge, hypothecation or mortgage of tangible assets; (*ii*) underwrite the issue of stocks, shares and debentures; and (*iii*) guarantee loans floated in the market repayable within a period not exceeding 25 years.

The Corporation is prohibited from subscribing directly to the shares or stocks of companies and is primarily a lender and not a partner in industry. Its policy is to finance the acquisition of fixed assets and thereby supplement rather than compete with the activities of commercial banks.

In September 1948 the Corporation started functioning with Mr. Shri Ram as Chairman and Mr. Ram Nath as Managing Director. The first annual report for the year ended June 30, 1949 shows a net profit of Rs. 85,507-13-8. During the period under report, it received inquiries for assistance from 156 concerns. Concrete proposals for accommodation were received from 95 concerns, the amount of help applied for aggregating Rs. 10·33 crores. Twenty-one applications aggregating Rs. 3·42 crores were sanctioned, the actual amount applied for by these companies amounting to Rs. 3·56 crores. The effective rate of interest charged varied from 5 to 5½ per cent.

ANNUAL REPORT

The second annual report for the period ended June 30, 1950 showed a profit of Rs. 3,06,438 out of which Rs. 50,000 were transferred to the Reserve Fund. The balance being insufficient the Government of India were asked to pay Rs. 8,68,562 to make up for the payment of a guaranteed dividend of 2¼ per cent. for the year on the share capital.

65 proposals for accommodation were received during the year from industrial concerns, the amount of assistance applied for aggregating Rs. 8,75,63,000, the corresponding figures for the previous year being 95 and Rs. 10,33,18,000. 23 applications aggregating Rs. 3,77,00,000 were sanctioned. (The total amount applied for by these concerns was Rs. 4,93,35,000.) 44 applications aggregating Rs: 4,30,65,000 were rejected. 19 applications aggregating Rs. 1,84,00,000 were still under consideration at the end of the year.

The applications sanctioned during the year related to a variety of industries, the types of industries and the amount of accommodation sanctioned for each industry being given below together with the corresponding figures for the previous year:

Type of Industry	Amount sanctioned during the year ended 30–6–50	Amount sanctioned during the year ended 30–6–49	Total
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Textile Machinery	8,00,000	43,00,000	51,00,000
Mechanical Engineering	39,00,000	10,00,000	49,00,000
Electrical Engineering	37,50,000	26,00,000	63,50,000
Cotton Textiles	92,50,000	40,00,000	1,32,50,000
Woollen Textiles	—	5,00,000	5,00,000
Rayon Industry	50,00,000	—	50,00,000
Chemicals	4,00,000	56,50,000	60,50,000
Cement	—	40,00,000	40,00,000
Ceramics and Glass	—	60,00,000	60,00,000
Oil Mills	—	1,75,000	1,75,000
Electric Power	9,00,000	3,00,000	12,00,000
Metallurgical Industry (non-ferrous metals)	—	30,00,000	30,00,000
Iron & Steel (light engineering)	27,00,000	15,50,000	42,50,000
Aluminium	50,00,000	—	50,00,000
Sugar Industry	20,00,000	—	20,00,000
Mining	30,00,000	—	30,00,000
Unclassified	10,00,000	11,50,000	21,50,000
	3,77,00,000	3,42,25,000	7,19,25,000

The total amount of accommodation sanctioned by the Corporation during the two years of its working was Rs. 7,19,25,000. As on 30th June 1950, the net amount drawn by the borrowing concerns (*i.e.* after making allowances for repayments) was Rs. 3,41,74,300.

BOOM AND CRASH

Stimulated by the widespread belief that the war would bring about soaring prices, profits and dividends, the stock market developed a veritable boom and Tata Deferred were lifted from Rs. 1,300 on July 25, 1939 to Rs. 2,332-8 on January 1, 1940. Fresh taxation and war reverses pressed down the quotation for a time to Rs. 1,210 by April 7, 1942; but the continued doses of inflationary measures gradually recovered the rate to Rs. 2,252-8 on March 20, 1944. Then followed a mild recession on fears about the end of the war and budget jitters; but by the time Germany capitulated, the market had recovered from the shock. The Indian Government's post-war budget for 1946-47 surpassed the most optimistic expectations and this, together with the conversion of the three and a half per cent Government Paper into three per cent. non-terminable loan or the 2¾ per cent. 1976 loan, ushered in an orgy of speculation which literally lifted the market to an all time record level, Tata Deferred touching Rs. 3,640 in August 1946. An idea of the boom can be had from the following table about shares quoted on the stock markets :–

(Rupees in lakhs)

	August 1939	July 1946
No. of Companies	628	758
Paid up Capital	Rs. 12,939	Rs. 17,330
Market Value	Rs. 20,441	Rs. 72,629

It was clear by the beginning of August 1946 that the rise in equities was artificial. The outbreak of communal rioting, the declaration of a series of strikes, the budget proposals of Mr. Liaquat Ali Khan aimed at redistribution of wealth, the partition of the country and its aftermath were the depressants in the following twelve months. They naturally broke the back of the stock market, Tata Deferred slumping from the peak of Rs. 3,640 in August 1946 to Rs. 1,550 in September 1947. It was at this stage that the economic malaise became a major factor in shaping the destiny of the equity market. Uncertain economic policies of Government, wild statements about nationalisation by Government spokesmen, industrial awards pushing up the wage costs irrespective of considerations of output, expansionist policy of Government and several other factors rendered a definite market trend impossible during 1947-48 which was finally wound up with a slightly pessimistic note, Tata Deferred closing at Rs. 1,517-8 on March 31, 1948.

For the first time, the Government of India felt the need for providing economic incentives for production and props for sustaining the investment markets. This was done through the budget proposals for 1948-49; but by that time another adverse factor had crept in. Several new companies had been started with inadequate resources and since the cost of imported capital goods had risen very high, it became difficult for many of them to continue. The freezing of capital in these companies scared away the middle class. Besides, the general economic uncertainty, the developments in Kashmir and Hyderabad, doubts regarding Government's attitude to private enterprise, anti-inflationary measures of the Government of India and the likely institution of profit sharing scheme and control over futures trading were some of the other adverse influences at work. Genuine investment interest consequently began to shrink and what little remained was withdrawn following the promulgation of the Dividend Limitation Ordinance issued on October 29, 1948 and the notification

relating to the restrictions on future bonus issues of companies. Share values sank rapidly and reached practically, the bottom by October 1948. The following table gives an idea of the capital depreciation between the end of the boom in July 1946 and October 1948 :—

(Rupees in lakhs)

	July 1946	October 1948
No. of Companies	758	779
Paid-up Capital	Rs. 17,330	Rs. 20,596
Market Value	Rs. 20,441	Rs. 40,563

In the following two months, trading was at a low ebb, operators showing disinclination to enter into larger commitments owing to the prevailing uncertainties in regard to labour, industrial earnings and, above all, Government's anti-inflationary proposals. In the following month, the threat of communism in South-East Asia and apprehensions of foreign competition and liberal imports hit the sentiment. A mild recovery was, however, noted as the year came to an end following the promulgation of the Ordinance empowering the Income-Tax Investigation Commission to compound cases arising from tax evasion and improved railway transport.

INDIAN SECURITIES

The following table indicates the broad trend of the prices of Indian securities during the war period and thereafter on the basis of the index numbers prepared in the office of the Economic Adviser to the Government of India with 1927-28 as the base for the index :—

	Government Securities	Fixed yield Industrial Securities	Variable Yield Industrial Securities									General Index
			Cotton (22 shares)	Jute (20 shares)	Coal (13 shares)	Iron and Steel (3 shares)	Tea (19 shares)	Sugar (3 shares)	Cement (1 Share)	Paper (2 Shares)	Banking (8 Shares)	
August												
1939	117·6	137·7	59·4	117·7	131·7	369·5	57·8	74·7	149·6	174·0	119·2	98·5
1939–40	111·2	134·5	85·1	64·3	164·5	539·3	69·0	97·2	162·8	346·7	116·6	120·5
940–41	114·6	147·5	85·5	54·6	149·0	507·1	67·5	86·2	159·4	299·4	123·8	117·4
1941–42	115·9	155·9	111·0	57·2	152·5	504·3	77·7	107·2	193·9	323·9	133·3	129·0
1942–43	115·0	144·9	146·6	53·9	161·3	441·5	86·9	141·7	235·9	359·9	144·9	138·6
1943–44	117·2	164·3	198·8	65·6	227·2	555·9	118·0	211·4	278·4	488·0	190·9	182·2
1944–45	118·0	176·2	185·2	79·3	298·1	557·5	120·3	220·0	294·0	510·1	194·1	197·3
1945–46	118·6	187·0	199·0	100·9	356·4	651·1	131·8	215·3	287·6	599·2	217·6	220·8
1946–47	120·4	197·8	267·1	133·3	408·8	787·2	170·5	236·6	303·4	888·1	286·7	268·6
1947–48	117·2	169·9	194·3	90·7	260·7	525·9	145·5	164·8	215·6	609·3	222·6	191·9
1948–49	114·7	156·9	175·1	70·8	202·9	428·8	123·3	142·0	202·0	509·7	200·2	162·4

Recent Trends

Industrial share prices witnessed a continuation of the downward movement which had commenced in August 1946 till about the middle of July 1949 when many equities touched their lowest for the post-war period. Since then there has been a gradual and almost continuous recovery. With a market mainly confined to professional activity, the continued deterioration in India's payments position, a drop in silver prices and the fall in foreign stock markets had the effect of pressing down Tata Deferred and Bombay Dyeing to their lowest post-war levels of Rs. 1,091-4-0 and Rs. 902-8-0 respectively on July 8 and June 28. Thereafter, except for a few temporary set-backs, share prices tended to be generally upward. This enabled the authorities of the Calcutta Stock Exchange to withdraw with effect from August 5 and 12 respectively the floor prices they had fixed for the miscellaneous and jute sections. A liberalisation of depreciation allowance to industry, reports of higher production, the announcement of September 10 of a twelve-point official programme to overcome the textile crisis, the favourable reception to the scheme for financial integration of States and the Finance Minister's statement in Parliament on the need to revise the structure of direct taxation helped to sustain the improvement.

Devaluation brought about a spurt in equity prices ; but Pakistan's decision not to devalue its rupee led to nervous liquidation. The sentiment was further depressed by a voluntary cut in the controlled prices of manufactured goods and the tentative proposals for amending the company law. By the middle of November the market resumed its upward trend and evinced a substantial improvement during the next 3½ months mainly on expectations of tax concessions in the Central Budget, other contributory factors being the fixation of higher targets of output, a reduction in coal prices and coal freights, and prospects of higher dividends following the expected lapse of the Dividend Limitation Act. The reaction to the budget proposals was slight, the market having discounted the concessions that were granted. During March the share market was dominated by the tension in Indo-Pakistan relations and stock prices showed sizeable declines.

Since April 1950 the gilt-edged market continued to be downward owing to tight money conditions, the uncertainty about Government's ability to hold money rates in the face of an upward trend abroad and the Reserve Bank's hesitancy in open market operations. The three per cent. Conversion Loan declined steadily from Rs. 97 in March 1950 to Rs. 96-14-0 and then recovered to Rs. 97.5 by May 31. The announcement on June 15 of Government's decision to issue a 3 per cent. loan 1964 was followed by a mild recession in some of the existing loans of more or less the same maturity. In August the Bombay Municipality floated two loans, 3¼ per cent. 1965, for Rs. 4 crores at Rs. 99.4. Public subscriptions amounted approximately to Rs. 2 crores leaving the balance to be taken by the underwriters. Since then the downward trend became more pronounced and the 3 per cent. Conversion Loan was marked down to Rs. 96-4-0 by the end of September. In the terminable section also there were widespread losses. The Finance Minister's statement in Parliament on November 22 indicating the limitations of the Reserve Bank's policy of open market operations in the context of the prevailing inflationary situation and the slump in world markets following the grave turn in the international situation reduced the quotation for the Conversion Loan to Rs. 93-12-0 by November 30. Most of the dated loans also retreated the losses in the longer-dated issues being up to Rs. 1-6-0. On December 11, 1950 the Conversion Loan dropped further to Rs. 93 and fluctuated thereafter within a comparatively narrow range on the Reserve Bank's support.

The equity market on the other hand, displayed a better tone. In April the Delhi Pact and a higher output of steel lifted Tata Deferred to Rs. 1,690 and the shares were firm following the conclusion of the 1950 bulk purchase contract with the U. K. ; but textiles ruled weak. The sentiment was, however, depressed in the following month by shortage of raw jute deliveries from Pakistan and by Government's decision to control cotton prices for 1950-51 season. A feeble recovery was staged in the following month on rumours of decontrol of cement and paper and devaluation of the Pakistani rupee. This gained fresh impetus in August during which the world-wide effects of the Korean War became apparent. The satisfactory working of Tata Iron in 1949-50 provided a fresh tonic and Tata Deferred were marked up to Rs. 1,862-8-0. The textile strike in Bombay which lasted for two months, however scared away the buyers once again. In September the activity in the market was further checked by the postponement of the I.M.F.'s decision on the par value of the Pakistani rupee, talks of a capital levy at the Nasik Session of the A.-I.C.C. and the continuance of the strike in Bombay. Tata Deferred, after advancing from Rs. 1,846-4-0 on August 31 to Rs. 1,867-8-0 by September 11, receded to close for the month at Rs. 1,716-4-0.x.d.

October was opened with the Prime Minister's statement ruling out the possibility of a capital levy and the Deputy Prime Minister's statement discounting the possibility of nationalisation of industries, other bullish factors were (1) the collapse of the textile strike, (2) hopeful view of industries and (3) expectations of an early devaluation by Pakistan of its currency. Fresh stimulants were provided in December by the Finance Minister's speech at the Annual meeting of the Associated Chambers of Commerce and Tata Deferred were sent up from Rs. 1,701-4-0 on October 9 to Rs. 1,922-8-0 on December 18—the highest level since March 1948. The rise in textiles was also appreciable. The year 1951 opened with an optimistic note ; but the stringent money conditions, budget fears, rumours about revaluation and the shortage of raw materials curbed the enthusiasm even though international developments and the Indo-Pakistan trade agreement, were favourable factors. In the latter half of March the market developed a reactionary trend on rumours about the Indian rupee being revalued.

In view of the fact that a good many changes have occurred both in the number and in the relative importance of the scrips quoted on the stock markets, the Reserve Bank of India has started constructing a new series of General Purpose Index Numbers of Security Prices making it as broad-based as possible by selecting a large representative set of scrips from important stock markets. Altogether 398 scrips have been selected for the purpose and the year 1938 has been taken as the base period for calculating index numbers to facilitate comparison of the trends in the post-war period with the pre-war. The following is the trend of index numbers of security prices constructed by the Reserve Bank since December 1946 :—

Index Numbers of Security Prices—All-India

Average of weeks	GROUP INDICES								SUB-GROUP INDICES OF VARIABLE DIVIDEND INDUSTRIAL SECURITIES												
	Government and Semi-Government Securities	Industrial Securities		Banks	Insurance	Investment Trusts	Electricity and Trams	Shipping and other Transport	Railways	Plantations	Cotton, Woollen and Silk Mills	Jute Mills	Coal	Mining and Oil	Iron and Steel	General Engineering	Sugar	Breweries	Chemicals	Paper	Cement
		Fixed Dividend	Variable Dividend																		
1946-47	104·7	140·6	252·5	195	292	297	137	295	105	284	437	276	283	198	278	324	219	331	282	367	208
1947-48	103·3	120·2	181·5	152	206	229	104	194	95	223	298	184	188	116	189	236	161	183	203	254	147
1948-49	102·0	109·4	136·5	138	159	193	87	144	90	157	202	112	129	82	150	192	138	117	176	125	134
1949-50	101·2	101·9	115·4	122	123	173	84	99	91	124	155	84	108	61	134	154	116	105	157	99	120
Last Week of																					
January 1950	101·1	100·9	118·5	122·8	122·7	170·0	85·7	93·3	89·6	127·0	158·7	77·4	106·1	62·5	154·8	165·9	121·4	104·8	162·5	109·2	134·1
February ,, ...	100·9	100·1	116·2	121·2	121·4	164·9	85·3	91·7	89·3	127·9	153·9	74·5	105·1	59·4	154·1	164·7	117·4	102·7	164·3	106·2	126·3
March ,, ...	100·9	100·1	113·1	118·2	121·5	161·0	85·0	88·2	88·1	126·8	155·0	68·7	101·5	59·1	138·5	154·1	110·9	97·0	158·2	102·3	125·3
April ,, ...	100·7	100·1	116·7	120·2	123·6	161·7	85·4	89·0	90·6	131·4	157·4	78·5	110·1	59·3	145·7	164·1	112·1	99·2	161·1	114·7	128·9
May ,, ...	100·8	101·0	118·9	120·7	125·6	163·9	85·4	85·9	91·2	145·9	154·4	84·0	112·0	64·8	145·8	164·9	110·2	98·5	163·5	119·3	127·2
June ,, ...	100·8	101·2	117·0	120·8	124·6	164·0	84·8	84·4	89·6	143·8	151·2	78·9	113·0	62·7	145·6	158·7	109·5	94·4	163·1	123·1	127·5
July ,, ...	100·7	102·5	122·5	125·1	123·2	165·5	86·4	95·4	91·6	148·3	153·0	95·9	116·1	63·9	160·9	174·3	109·4	100·5	182·7	106·1	133·7
August ,, ...	100·5	102·3	125·3	125·4	122·6	168·6	87·8	98·5	92·2	154·4	154·4	98·9	120·7	67·9	164·6	178·8	113·2	102·9	176·5	108·2	138·1
September ,, ...	100·4	100·7	123·8	125·2	125·4	158·3	89·6	92·6	94·3	150·1	154·9	95·1	123·3	69·7	156·9	180·0	88·6	100·7	169·8	107·5	137·4
October ,, ...	100·2	100·7	124·6	124·0	124·8	164·3	90·9	92·0	94·4	149·0	154·5	96·9	125·2	73·5	153·2	180·5	88·8	101·8	170·2	109·2	139·8
November ,, ...	99·8	100·6	125·1	123·4	125·9	161·6	92·1	91·1	94·5	151·1	157·6	96·1	124·0	73·5	159·4	181·2	86·5	101·4	170·8	108·1	140·0
December ,, ...	98·9	100·6	128·7	123·3	128·0	163·5	91·6	99·2	92·3	158·7	162·3	98·1	125·1	81·2	166·5	189·7	96·9	105·2	181·7	109·7	144·9

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE

ASSOCIATED Chambers of Commerce of India, Royal Exchange, 6, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta. Registered in 1920 under Act VII, 1913 (Indian Companies' Act, 1913).

The object is to promote and protect the trade, commerce, industries and manufactures of the country.

In all there are three classes of members, *viz.*, Original, Additional and Associate, there are 11 Chambers of Commerce from different parts of the country as members of the association. Annual subscription of each member whether Original, Additional or Associate is Rs. 150 per vote.

Secretary :—D. C. Fairbairn, M.A., C.I.E.

Bengal Chamber of Commerce.—The Bengal Chamber of Commerce was founded in 1834 at Calcutta. The Bengal Chamber is registered with a declaration of membership of 330. Its objects are the usual purposes connected with the protection of trade in particular in Calcutta. There are three classes of members, Chamber, Associate and Honorary.

The following are the office-bearers of the Chamber for the year 1950-51 :—

President :—Sir Paul Benthall, K.B.E.

Secretary:—D. C. Fairbairn, C.I.E.; *Deputy Secretary* : J. J. B. Sutherland, M. B. E. ; *Assistant Secretaries* : W. D. Bryden, T. R. Crook and J. J. Rattray.

The following are the public bodies (among others) to which the Chamber has the right of returning representatives, and the representatives returned, for the current year.

The West Bengal Legislative Assembly.—J. R. Walker, F.T.I.

The Calcutta Port Commission.—W. A. Bell; P. G. Knott; G. A. S. Sim.

The Board of Trustees for the Improvement of Calcutta.—T. Godley.

The W. Bengal Boiler Commission.—J. N. Grant; G. P. Chestney.

The W. Bengal Smoke Nuisances Commission.—R. J. Oliver; R. H. Campbell.

The following are the recognised associations of the Bengal Chamber of Commerce:—

Calcutta Grain, Oilseed and Rice Association; Indian Jute Mills Association; Indian Tea Association; Calcutta Tea Traders' Association; Calcutta Insurance Association; Calcutta Import Trade Association; The Wine, Spirit and Beer Association of India; Indian Mining Association; Calcutta Baled Jute Association; Indian Paper Makers' Association; Indian Engineering Association; Calcutta Jute Fabrics Shippers' Association; Calcutta Hydraulic Press Association; Jute Fabric Brokers' Association; Calcutta Baled Jute Shippers' Association; Calcutta Jute Dealers' Association; Calcutta Hides and Skins Shippers' Association; Calcutta Flour Mills' Association; Calcutta River Transport Association; The Master Stevedores' Association and the Paint Federation; Calcutta Freight Brokers' Association and European Mofussil Jute Balers' Association.

The Chamber does not assist in the preparation of official statistical returns. It publishes weekly the *Calcutta Prices Current*, and also publishes a large number of statistical circulars of various descriptions in addition to a monthly abstract of proceedings and many other circulars on matters under discussion.

The Chamber maintains a Tribunal of Arbitration for the determination, settlement and adjustment of disputes and differences relating to trade, business, manufactures, and to customs of trade, between parties, all or any of whom reside or carry on business personally or by agent or otherwise in Calcutta or elsewhere in India, by whomsoever of such parties the said disputes and differences be submitted. The Secretary of the Chamber acts as the Registrar of the Tribunal, which consists of such members or assistants to members as may from time to time, annually or otherwise be selected by the Registrar and willing to serve on the Tribunal. The Registrar from time to time makes a list of such members and assistants.

The Licensed Measurers Department of the Chamber was instituted in 1883 and is the only officially recognised concern of this nature in Calcutta. Its functions are mainly the weighment and/or measurement of cargo for freight purposes and for confirmation of invoice weights, and to act as arbitrator in cases of disputes over weights. Certificates issued for these purposes are accepted universally.

The Department is controlled by a special Committee and is supervised by a Superintendent, Head Office Manager and four Assistant Superintendents. A Staff of 129 Inspectors and Officers carry out the work of measurement and weighment at the Calcutta Docks and Jetties and on vessels loading at river moorings.

Address :—Royal Exchange, Post Box No. 280, Calcutta 1.

Bengal National Chamber of Commerce.—The Bengal National Chamber of Commerce, the premier institution of the Indian Commercial Community in W. Bengal, was founded in 1887. The objects of the Chamber are to aid and stimulate the development of commercial, agricultural and industrial enterprises in W. Bengal and Assam and to protect the commercial interest of all persons trading therein.

The constitution of the Chamber extends the facilities of Associate and Honorary Membership to the entire trading community in Bengal. The number of Ordinary members on the roll is about 600.

List of Associations Affiliated to the Chamber.—All-India Jute Mill Bobbin Manufacturers' Association; All-Bengal Electrical Contractors Association; All-India Tea Growers' Federation; Association of Engineers; Bengal Brickfield Owners' Association; Bengal Motion Pictures Association; Bengal Hosiery Manufacturers' Association; Bengal Glass Manufacturers' Association; Bengal Banks' Association; Bengal Cotton Association, Ltd.; Bengal Industries Association; Bengal Stationers' Association; Bengal Bus Syndicate; Bengal Trades' Association; Bengal Tanners' Association; Bengal Oil Mills' Association; Brickfield Association, Kotrung; Bengali Jute Dealers' & Brokers' Association; Brahmanbaria Merchants' Association; Calcutta Retail Cloth Shops Association; Calcutta Electric Traders' Association; Calcutta Hardware Traders' Association; Calcutta Iron Merchants' Association; Calcutta Jute Exchange, Ltd.; Calcutta Paper Traders' Association; Calcutta Rice Dealers' Association; Calcutta Timber Merchants' Association; Calcutta Salt Association, Ltd.; Calcutta Rice Mills' Association; Calcutta Stevedores' Association; East India Jute & Hessian Exchange Ltd.; Gramophone & Radio Dealers' Association; Grain & Pulse Dealers' Association; Indian Insurance Institute; India Society of Engineers; Indian Lamp Factories' Association; Indian Mining Federation; Indian Soap & Toiletries Makers' Association; Indian Plywood Manufacturers' Association of India; Tea Chest and Plywood Traders' Association; Indian Tea Chest Batten Manufacturers' Association; Indigenous Belting Industries Association; India Battery Manufacturers' Association; Khulna Chamber of Commerce; Memari Paddy & Rice Merchants' Association; North Bengal Timber Merchants' Associations; Radio Industries Association; Tripura Tea Association; Retail Textile Dealers' Association; West Bengal Iron & Sheet Merchants' Association; Vanaspati Dealers' Association; West Bengal Saw Mills Association.

The Chamber enjoys the privilege of electing representatives to the West Bengal Legislative Assembly, the Calcutta Port Trust, the Calcutta Improvement Trust, W. Bengal Industries Board, Economic Enquiry Board, W. Bengal, Indian Central Jute Committee, Indian Central Cotton Committee, Indian Coal Grading Board, Calcutta Corporation, State Sugar Board, West Bengal Electricity Power Control Board, West Bengal Boiler Commission, Calcutta Telephone Advisory Committee, P. & T. Regional Advisory Committee at Calcutta, State Transport Authority and other important bodies.

The headquarters of the Chamber are at Calcutta and its affairs are administered by a committee of 32 members in addition to the President, two Vice-Presidents, and the Honorary Treasurer, with the help of the Secretary and a number of Departmental Committees.

LIST OF OFFICE-BEARERS FOR THE YEAR, 1951-52.

President :—Dr. N. N. Law, M.A., Ph.D.; *Vice-Presidents* :—P. Mukerjee, G. Basu, B.A., R.A.; *Hony. Treasurer* :—Dr. Satya Charan Law, M.A., Ph.D.

Secretary.—S. R. Biswas, M.A.

Office :—P-11, Mission Row Extension, 1st & 2nd Floors, Calcutta 1.

Telephone : Calcutta City, 3381 (2 lines).
Telegram : 'Conjoint.'

The Berhampur Chamber of Commerce (Orissa).—The Berhampur Chamber of Commerce was established soon after the formation of the State of Orissa. It is registered under the Indian Companies' Act and is recognised by the Government of Orissa. It maintains a library and an information service, arranges commercial arbitration and makes commercial opinion available to Government. It has nearly 60 members on its roll.

President :—P. Narayana Rao, B.A., B.L.; *Vice-President*:—The Agent of Mess'. Haji Jamal Nur Mohamad; *Hon. Secretary* :—I. Rama Murty. *Address*.—Berhampur, Ganjam Dist., B. N. Rly.

Bharat Chamber of Commerce.—(Established 1900). The main object of this Chamber is to foster the growth of commerce and industry in the country, to safeguard the interests of the commercial communities, to protect and promote the trade, commerce, manufactures, agriculture and industries of West Bengal, to watch over and protect the general commercial interests of persons engaged in trade, commerce, manufactures, agriculture or industries in India. It arbitrates in disputes arising out of commercial transactions and also issues certificates of origin to exporters of indigenous goods. The Chamber is generally consulted by Government on questions of public interest and commercial matters. It undertakes special enquiries and action for securing redress of legitimate grievances of any branch of trade or industry. It handles more than 80 per cent of distributive trade in cotton textiles and a good number of members are interested in export and import trade.

President :—I. P. Goenka.

Vice-Presidents :—P. L. Saraogi and G. L. Mehta.

Secretary :—B. N. Sengupta.

The following Associations are affiliated with the Chamber :—Kalimpong Chamber of Commerce, Kalimpong; Bogra Cloth & Yarn Merchants' Association, Bogra; B.T.A. Unit Holders Association, Calcutta; Darjeeling District Marwari Merchants' Association, Darjeeling; Merchants' Association, Khargpur, B.N. Rly.; The Calcutta Wheat and Seeds Association, Calcutta; Sonada Merchants' Association, Sonada; The Indian Jute & Cotton Association Ltd., Calcutta; Assam Marwari Chamber of Commerce; Calcutta Salt Association, Calcutta; Cloth Merchants' Association, Siliguri; Upper Assam Marwari Chamber of Commerce, Jorhat; Darjeeling Chamber of Commerce, Darjeeling; Swarna Rajat Kalakar Samiti, Calcutta.

Address : Imperial Bank Building, Burrabazar Branch, Calcutta 7.

Telephone No. B.B. 2265.
Grams : "Marchamber."

Bombay Chamber of Commerce.—Mackinnon Mackenzie Bldg., Ballard Estate, Bombay.—The object of the Bombay Chamber, as set forth in the Memorandum and Articles of Association, are to encourage and promote a friendly feeling and unanimity among commercial men; to promote and protect the general mercantile interests of this State and to collect and circulate information on all matters of general commercial interest.

The Bombay Chamber was established in 1836, under the auspices of Sir Robert Grant, who was then Governor of Bombay.

All firms or persons engaged or interested in mercantile pursuits are eligible for election to membership by ballot. The Chamber member's annual subscription is Ordinary Rs. 480, Associate Rs. 360. An Ordinary Member on election pays an entrance fee of Rs. 1,000 and an Associate Member Rs. 100.

Officials and others indirectly connected with the trade, commerce or manufactures of India, or who may have rendered distinguished service to the interests represented by the Chamber may be elected by the Committee Honorary Members of the Chamber.

One of the most important functions performed by the Chamber is that of arbitration in commercial disputes. Rules for this have been in existence for many years and have worked most satisfactorily. The decisions are in all cases given by competent arbitrators appointed by the General Committee of the Chamber and the system avoids the great expense of resort to the law courts.

The Chamber elects representatives as follows to various public and semi-public bodies :—

Bombay Legislative Assembly : L. A. Halsall, C.B.E.; E. L. C. Gwilt.

Bombay Board of Communications : A. A. Pugh.

Bombay Port Trust : R. W. Bullock and A. Kirkwood Brown.

Bombay Port Pilferage Committee : F. J. Kennedy.

Bombay Municipal Corporation : E. E. Cockram.

Sydenham College of Commerce Advisory Board : R. W. Bullock.

Bombay Smoke Nuisances Commission: E. D. Shephard.

Indian Central Cotton Committee: L. F. H. Goodwin.

Cotton Piecegoods and Yarn Advisory Committee : A. Sotiriadi.

Empire Cotton Growing Corporation : S. B. Samoilys.

Back Bay Reclamation Standing Advisory Committee : L. A. Halsall, C.B.E.

Ex-Services Association, India : L. F. H. Goodwin, O.B.E.

Ex-Services Association, Bombay Branch : B. J. O'shaughnessy.

Royal Bombay Seamen's Society : N. H. G. Grant.

Imported Piecegoods, Fixation of Prices Committee : A. Sotiriadi.

Indian Sailors' Home : R. C. Bainbridge and Capt. V. Bicknelle.

I. M. M. T. S. Dufferin : A. Kirkwood Brown.

Traffic Advisory Committee : A. A. Pugh.

Federation of Chambers of Commerce of the British Empire : Sir Geoffrey Winterbotham.

Local Railway Advisory Committees—

G. I. P.: F. J. Kennedy.

B. B. & C. I.: F. J. Kennedy.

Railway Rates Advisory Committee : L. A. Halsall; C. J. Damala; A. P. Darlow and A. L. Hutson.

Regional Employment Advisory Committee : R. E. Peters.

Senate of the Bombay University : A. L. Hutson.

Bombay State Transport Authority : W. W. Russell.

Bombay Joint Town Planning Committee: E. Wilkinson.

St. George's Hospital Nursing Association : L. A. Halsall, C.B.E.

Trade Marks Advisory Committee : A. Sotiriadi.

Sick and Destitute Seamen's Fund : W. P. Edwards.

New European Hospital Trust :—L. A. Halsall.

Indian Central Coconut Committee : C. E. Bingham.

A special department of the Bombay Chamber is its Statistical Department, which prepares a large amount of statistical returns connected with the trade of the port and of great importance to the conduct of commerce. The daily statements consist of a Daily Trade Return detailing exports from and imports into and shipping news of the port of Bombay, Arrivals of Cotton, Wheat, Seeds, Vegetable Oils, etc., by rail and sea into Bombay. Import and Export Manifests are issued twice a week and statements of Rates of Exchange, Current Quotations, etc. and Imports of Foreign Raw Cotton into Bombay, weekly. The monthly returns consist of a Detailed Return of principal imports from Europe and elsewhere, a statement showing the exports from India of cotton and seeds, a summary of exports from Bombay of seeds, oilcakes and sundry commodities, a return of imports of piecegoods and yarns into Bombay and a statement of exports of cotton by sea from Bombay.

The Chamber has also a Measurement Department, whose business is that of actual measurement of export cargoes in the docks before loading in steamers. Certificates are issued by the officers with the authority of the Chamber to shippers and ship agents as to the measurement of cotton and other goods in bales or packages. From the measurements given in these certificates the freight payable by the Shippers of goods is calculated.

The affairs of the Chamber are controlled by a President, Vice-President and Committee of 10, who are assisted by standing sub-committees of which there are 13, *viz.*—(1) Chemicals & Drugs, (2) Electricity, (3) Engineering (Imports), (4) Export, (5) Finance, (6) Import, (7) Income-tax, (8) Industrial Affairs, (9) Insurance, (10) Piecegoods (Import & Export), (11) Railways, (12) Shipping and (13) Weather-Working Days.

The Committee as a rule meet at least once a fortnight. The General Meeting of the Chamber must be held once a year and not more than fifteen months after the holding of the last preceding General Meeting.

The membership of the Chamber as on 1st January 1951 was Ordinary Members 311, Associate Members 43 and Honorary Members 8.

GENERAL COMMITTEE 1950-51.—L. F. H. Goodwin, O.B.E. (*President*); L. A. Halsall, C.B.E. (*Vice-President*); C. A. Cunliffe; A. Kirkwood Brown; H. C. MacColl; Kishore M. Premchand; Naval H. Tata; E. L. C. Gwilt; H. C. de Mierre; C. S. Pettit; R. H. Schuepp; N. M. Wagle; L. A. Boult (*Secretary*).

Calcutta Chamber of Commerce—*Object :*—To foster and develop mutual help and co-operation amongst those who are directly or indirectly interested in Trade, Commerce, Industry, Agriculture, etc. and safeguard the interests of commercial communities of India.

Membership :—Any firm, company, corporation, or individual doing business, lawyer, physician, banker or man of public importance is eligible for membership on payment of subscription as determined by the committee and on recommendation in writing by any two of its members subject to the approval of the committee.

Administration :—The affairs of the Chamber are administered by an Executive Committee.

Address :—P-5, Canning Street, Calcutta 1. Phone : Cal. 4231.

Cocanada Chamber of Commerce.—The Cocanada Chamber of Commerce was established on 29th October 1868.

The following are the office-bearers of the Chamber, which has its headquarters at Cocanada, the chief port on the Coromandel Coast north of Madras :—

Members of the Committee.—S. A. Cheesman (*Chairman*), N. C. Krishnaiah, M. S. Subramanyam, W. Le Faucheur (*Honorary Secretary*).

The rules of the Chamber provide that by the term 'member' be understood a mercantile firm or establishment, or the permanent agency of a mercantile firm or establishment, or a society of merchants carrying on business in Cocanada or other place in the Districts of Kistna, Godavari, Vizagapatam, and Ganjam, and duly elected according to the Rules of the Chamber, and that all such be eligible but only members resident in Cocanada can hold office. Members are elected by ballot. The Committee, when called upon by disputing members or non-members of the Chamber, give their decision upon all questions of mercantile usage and arbitrate upon any commercial matter referred to them for final judgment. In either case a minimum fee of Rs. 16 must accompany the reference with Rs. 5 from a non-member and Re. 1 from a member as payment for the Chamber's Sealed Certificate.

The Committee consisting of 3 members, including the Chairman, is elected by ballot at the general meeting in January in each year for a term of 12 months. The entrance fee for each member, whose place of business is in Cocanada, is Rs. 100 and for each member whose place of business is elsewhere is Rs. 50. Subscription for members whose place of business is in Cocanada, Rs. 150 per annum, payable quarterly, for others Rs. 75 per annum, payable in advance. The Committee usually meets once a month on the penultimate Thursday and the general body meets on the last Thursday.

Delhi Chamber of Commerce, New Delhi.—Was established in 1949 and was registered under the Indian Companies Act 1913 in January 1950. The main object for which the Chamber was established was to safeguard the interests of Indian Commerce, Industry, Trade and Agriculture of the State of Delhi in particular and of India in general.

OFFICE BEARERS FOR 1950-51.—*President*: Shankar Lal, Managing Director, Tropical Insurance Co., Ltd., New Delhi; *Vice-Presidents :* Kirpa Narain, Manager, Ganesh Flour Mills Ltd., Delhi and Ganga Saran, M.L.A., R. B. Narshingh Dass & Sons, 27-A, Barakhamba Road, New Delhi; *Honorary Secretary :* Sirdar P. S. Sodhbans, F.C.A., F.L.A.A. (Lond.), Sodhbans & Co., Chartered Accountants, Paharganj, New Delhi; *Office :* Dilbar Building, Original Road, Paharganj, New Delhi.

Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry.—The Federation has 118 Chambers of Commerce and Commercial Associations affiliated to it as Ordinary Members and 8 Associate Members, and is recognised by the Central Government as the premier organisation representing commercial and industrial interests in the country. The headquarters of the Federation are situated in New Delhi. There are two classes of Members, Ordinary and Associate.

Among the objects for which the Federation is established are the following :—

(*a*) To promote Indian businesses in matters of inland and foreign trade, transport, industry and manufactures, finance and all other economic subjects.

(*b*) To encourage friendly feeling and unanimity among the business community and association on all subjects connected with the common good of Indian business.

(*c*) To enter into any arrangement with any Government or authority supreme, municipal, local or otherwise, that may seem conducive to the Federation's objects or any of them, and to obtain from any such Government or authority all rights, concessions, and privileges which the Federation may think desirable to obtain and to carry out, exercise and comply with any such arrangements, rights, privileges and concessions.

(*d*) To sell or dispose of the undertaking of the Federation or any part thereof for such consideration as the Federation may think and in particular for shares, debentures or securities of any other company having objects altogether or in part similar to those of the Federation.

(*e*) To take or otherwise acquire and hold shares in any other company having objects altogether or in part similar to those of the Federation.

(*f*) To undertake and execute any trusts the undertaking of which may seem to the Federation desirable either gratuitously or otherwise.

(*g*) To draw, make, accept, discount, execute and issue bills of exchange, promissory notes, bills of lading, warrants, debentures and other negotiable or transferable instruments or securities.

OFFICE-BEARERS FOR 1950-51.

President:—Tulsidas Kilachand, Bombay.
Hon. Treasurer :—D. N. Sen, Calcutta.
Secretary :—G. L. Bansal.
Office :—28, Ferozshah Road, New Delhi 5.

Indian Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta.—The Indian Chamber of Commerce was established in November 1925 to promote and protect the trade, commerce and industries of India and in particular the trade, commerce and industries in or with which Indians are engaged or concerned; to aid and stimulate the development of trade, commerce and industries in India with capital principally provided by or under the management of Indians; to promote and advance commercial and technical education and such study of different branches of Art and Science as may tend to develop trade, commerce and industries in India.

There are two classes of members, local and mofussil. The local members pay an annual subscription of Rs. 500 and the Mofussil members Rs. 250.

Office Bearers for 1951:—*President:* L. N. Birla.

Vice-President : Sir B. P. Singh Roy.

Secretary :—Dr. R. D. Tiwari, M.A., LL.B., Ph.D., D. Litt.

Deputy Secretary :—L. S. Bisht, B.Sc., LL.B.

The following Associations are affiliated with the Chamber :—

Automotive Manufacturers' Association of India; Calcutta Rice Merchants' Association; Calcutta Tea Merchants' Association; Cycle Manufacturers' Association; East India Jute & Hessian Exchange Ltd; Employers' Association, Calcutta; Engineering Association of India; Gunny Trades Association; Indian Chemical Manufacturers' Association; Indian Colliery Owners' Association; Indian Hemp Association; Indian Insurance Companies' Association; Indian Non-Ferrous Metals Manufacturers' Association; Indian Paint Manufacturers' Association; Indian Paper Mills Association; Indian Rope Manufacturers' Association; Indian Steel Makers' Association; The Indian Special Steels Marketing Board; The Indian Sugar Mills Association; The Jute Balers' Association; The Indian Chemical Merchants' Association.

The Indian Chamber of Commerce also appointed in 1927 a Tribunal of Arbitration to arbitrate in all disputes relating to various trades. With a view to covering the varying nature of disputes arising in different trades, separate panels of Arbitration are appointed on the Tribunal of Arbitration for each of the following trades:—(1) Jute; (2) Gunny; (3) Sugar; (4) Piece-goods and Yarn; (5) Iron and Steel; (6) Coal and Minerals; (7) General.

REPRESENTATIVES ON VARIOUS PUBLIC BODIES

Governing Body of Tropical School of Medicine Endowment Fund :—K. M. Naik; *Visiting Committee of Nilratan Sirkar Group of Medical College Hospitals* :—G. D. Binani; *Electricity Licensing Board* :—D. D. Chhauchhauria; *Traffic Advisory Board* :—G. S. Nevatia; *Visiting Committee of the Medical College Group of Hospitals* :—N. L. Kanoria; *Industrial Research Board, West Bengal* :—D. C. Driver; *Governing Body of Seth Anandram Jaipuria College* :—K. M. Naik; *Regional Employment Advisory Committee, Govt. of W. Bengal* :—G. S. Nevatia; *Vocational and Technical Training Sub-Committee of the Employment Advisory Committee and Calcutta Telephone Advisory Committee* :—M. L. Shah; *West Bengal State Civil Supplies Board* :—M. L. Shah; *Calcutta Port Trust* :—K. M. Naik; *Calcutta Port Trust* :—D. C. Driver; *Calcutta Port Trust* :—D. P. Goenka; *Representative on C.S.P.C.A.*—N. L. Kanoria; *The W. Bengal Smoke Nuisance Commission* :—B. M. Bagri; *Clearance of Import Cargo Advisory Committee* :—G. D. Binani; *Consultative Committee of the Calcutta Electric Supply Corporation* :— D. N. Jalan; *Indian Central Jute Committee* :—K. D. Jalan and Bhagirath Kanoria; *Port Committee of Export Advisory Council, Calcutta* :—Surajmull Mohta; *West Bengal Board of Apprenticeship Training* :—P. R. Bagri; *Seth Banshidhar Jalan Charitable Trust* :—B. M. Birla; *Howrah Goods Railway Advisory Committee* :—G. S. Nevatia; *W. Bengal Board of Boiler Attendants* :— M. P. Mehta; *State Advisory Board of Indian Forest Utilisation* :—P. D. Himatsingka; *State Transport Authority in West Bengal* :—R. L. Nopany; *Price Fixation Board* :—B. K. Birla; *Textiles Trade Marks Advisory Committee* :—B. M. Bagri; *Bengal Textile Institute* :—M. P. Mehta; *Calcutta Port Trust* :—N. K. Jalan; *State Labour Advisory Board* :—K. D. Jalan; *Coal Transport Advisory Committee*:—J. B. Elias; *Inspection Committee of Railways' Goods Sheds, Regional Post and Telegraph Advisory Committee, Bengal Bus Syndicate, Social Work Committee, University of Calcutta and B. N. Rly. Advisory Committee, Calcutta* :—M. C. Parekh.

Address :—23-B, Netaji Subhas Road, Calcutta 1.

Grams :—"Indchamb."

Indian Chamber of Commerce, Ambala Cantt. (Punjab).—The Indian Chamber of Commerce (Desi Beopar Mandal), Ambala Cantt., was established in 1912 and was registered under the Indian Companies' Act 1882 in 1913. The main object for which the Chamber was established was to safeguard the interests of Indian Commerce, Trade and Agriculture. The Chamber is recognised by the Punjab (India) Government and the Government of India.

The Chamber is affiliated to the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry and is a member of the International Chamber of Commerce, Paris. The Chamber issues certificates of origin of goods manufactured in India and has a Board of Arbitration to settle commercial disputes. The Chamber has got a franchise to the Commerce and Industry Constituency of the Punjab (India) Legislative Assembly.

OFFICE-BEARERS FOR 1950-51.

President :—S. Ujjal Singh; *Vice-Presidents*—R. K. Jain, Sohan Lal; *Hon. Secretary*—Sardar H. S. Balhaya.

Representation on Different Bodies: Punjab (India) Railway Local Advisory Committee: S. Sapuran Singh Chawla; *State Aid Board of Industries, Punjab*: Sardar P. S. Sodhbans; *P. Employment Advisory Committee*: Dr. Dev Raj Narang; *Wiring Contractors' & Licensing Board, Punjab*: Sirdar H. S. Balhaya; *P. Electric Power Control Board*: Shri Sohan Lal; *P. State Labour Advisory Board*: S. B. Sardar Sapuran Singh Chawla; Shri D. D. Puri; Shri Hans Raj Dhanda; *P. Communication Board*: Shri Raghu Raj; *Regional Post and Telegraph Advisory Committee, Ambala*: Shri D. D. Puri; *Standing Advisory Committee For Industries*: Dr. Dev Raj Narang; *B.B. & C.I. Railway Local Advisory Committee, Delhi*: Shri K. R. Khosla.

Indian Merchants' Chamber.—The Indian Merchants' Chamber was established in the year 1907. Its objects are:—

(*a*) To encourage friendly feeling and unanimity among the business community on all subjects connected with the common good of Indian merchants.

(*b*) To secure organised action on all subjects relating to the interests of the Indian business community directly and indirectly.

(*c*) To promote the objects of the Indian business community in matters of inland and foreign trade, shipping and transport, industry and manufacture, banking and insurance.

(*d*) To collect and disseminate statistical and other information securing the promotion of the objects of the Chamber, and to make efforts for the spread of commercial and economic knowledge.

(*e*) To take all steps which may be necessary for promoting, supporting or opposing legislation or other action affecting the aforesaid interests by the Government or any Department thereof or by any local body or bodies, and in general to take the initiative to secure the welfare of the business community in all respects.

(*f*) To make representations to Local, or Central authorities, Executive or Legislative, on any matter affecting trade, commerce, manufacture or shipping, banking or insurance.

(*g*) To undertake by arbitration the settlement of commercial disputes and also to provide for arbitration in respect of disputes arising in the course of trade, industry or transport, and to secure the services of expert technical and other men to that end if necessary or desirable.

(*h*) To advance and promote commercial and technical education and to found and support establishments and institutions for such purposes.

(*i*) To undertake special enquiries and action for securing redress for legitimate grievances of any branch of trade or industry as also all such other action as may be conducive to the extension of trade, commerce or manufacture or incidental to the attainment of the above objects.

(*j*) To secure the interests and well-being of the Indian business communities abroad.

(*k*) To secure, wherever possible, organised and/or concerted action on all subjects involving the interests of members including regulating conditions of employment of industrial labour in various industries represented by the members of the Organisation.

(*ii*) To nominate delegates and advisers, etc., to represent the employers of India at the Annual International Labour Conference of the League of Nations.

(*iii*) To take up, consider and formulate ideas on the subjects which are on the Agenda of each International Labour Conference.

(*iv*) To take all steps which may be necessary for promoting, supporting or opposing recommendations or conventions of the International Labour Conference,

(*l*) And generally to do all that may be necessary in the interests of the realisation of the above objects of the Chamber directly or indirectly.

The Chamber has also the right to elect six representatives on the Bombay Port Trust, and one representative on the Bombay Municipal Corporation.

OFFICE-BEARERS FOR 1951.

President.—Madanmohan R. Ruia.

Vice-President.—Ratilal M. Nanavati.

Representatives of the Chamber on various public bodies :—

Bombay Legislative Assembly.—Chhotabhai S. Patel, M.L.A.

Bombay Port Trust.—M. A. Master; Ramdas Kilachand; Tulsidas Mulji Vishram; Vallabhdas V. Mariwala; P. M. Chinai; Murarji J. Vaidya.

Bombay Municipal Corporation.—Dahyabhai V. Patel.

Bombay Development Dept. Advisory Committee.—Manu Subedar.

University of Bombay.—Ratilal M. Gandhi.

Sydenham College of Commerce Advisory Committee.—Sir Rahimtoola M. Chinoy.

G.I.P. Rly. Local Advisory Committee.—Mahomed Husein Hasham Premji.

B. B. & C. I. Rly. Local Advisory Committee.—Prof. M. P. Gandhi.

Indian Central Cotton Committee.—Chimanlal B. Parikh.

Trustees of the Chamber.—Seth Chatrabhuj Gordhandas; Seth Pranlal Devkaran Nanji; Gordhandas G. Morarji; Bhawanji A. Khimji; Sir Behram N. Karanjia.

Bombay Board of Communications.—Keshavprasad C. Desai.

Institute of Science Advisory Committee.—Dr. K. A. Hamied.

Traffic Advisory Committee.—Navin H. Mapara.

Indian Sailors' Home Committee.—Vijaysinh Govindji; J. P. Mehta.

Hony. Adviser.—J. K. Mehta.

Secretary.—A. C. Ramalingam.

Asstt. Secretaries—K. P. Daru; C. L. Gheewala.

Address :—Lalji Naranji Memorial, Indian Merchants' Chamber Building, Back Bay Reclamation, Churchgate Street, Fort, Bombay.

Phones.—26265, 26266.

Grams.—"Inchambu."

International Chamber of Commerce, Indian National Committee.—The Indian National Committee of the International Chamber of Commerce was established for the following purposes in the year 1929 :—

To participate in the promotion of the objects for which the International Chamber of Commerce, hereinafter called the "International Chamber," is established, namely :

(*i*) To facilitate the commercial intercourse of countries.

(*ii*) To secure harmony of action on all international questions affecting finance, industry and commerce.

(*iii*) To encourage progress and to promote peace and cordial relations among countries and their citizens by the co-operation of business, men and organisations devoted to the development of commerce and industry.

The Indian National Committee has on its roll 40 commercial bodies as Organisation Members and 53 commercial firms as Associate Members.

OFFICE-BEARERS FOR 1950-51.

President.—Tulsidas Kilachand, Bombay.

Vice-President.—Chandulal M. Kothari, Madras.

Honorary Treasurer.—D. N. Sen, Calcutta.

Secretary.—G. L. Bansal.

Office.—28, Ferozshah Road, New Delhi 5.

Madras Chamber of Commerce.—The Madras Chamber of Commerce was founded in 1836. Any person or firm, interested in the general trade, commerce, or manufactures of the Madras State is eligible for Chamber membership. Distinguished persons, members of kindred associations, and officials interested in trade, commerce or industry in the Madras State may be elected Honorary Members of the Chamber. Honorary Members do not have to pay any subscription and are not entitled to exercise the privileges of Ordinary Members except to speak at any ordinary meeting of the Chamber. Other Chambers of Commerce may be Affiliated Members. Election for membership is by ballot. Every member other than an Honorary Member pays an entrance fee of Rs. 100, provided that banks, corporate bodies and mercantile firms may be represented on the Chamber by one or more members and are liable for an entrance fee of Rs. 100 once in every 10 years. The subscription shall not exceed Rs. 800 per annum, payable quarterly in advance, for each representative. Each Affiliated Member shall pay an annual subscription of Rs. 50 payable at the beginning of the calendar year.

The Chamber undertakes arbitrations and surveys, and the granting of certificates of origin.

There are 80 Firms, who are Members of the Chamber; and there are 5 Affiliated Members and 8 Honorary Members of the Chamber in 1949. The officers of the Chamber are as follows :—

Chairman : H. S. Macqleen. *Vice-Chairman :* H. I. Wonfor. *Secretary and Adviser :* G. T. B. Harvey, C.I.E.

The following are the Chamber's representatives on various public bodies :—

Corporation of Madras : E. deB. Elphick. *Madras Port Trust :* F. G. Hadden, N. Barlow. *Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway Advisory Committee :* J. H. Hendrie. *South Indian Railway Advisory Committee :* S. S. T. Chari. *Board of Communications :* W. A. Griffiths. *Senate of the University of Madras :* S. S. T. Chari; D. J. Jigyasu. *Senate of the Annamalai University :* R. Madhavachari. *State Technical Scholarship Board :* F. H. Oakley. *Board of State Aid to Industries :* S. G. H. Davis. *Madras City Excise Licensing Board :* C. D. Allerton. *Trade Marks Advisory Committee :* B. W. Batchelor. *State Cloth Advisory Committee :* D. M. Passmore, C.I.E. *Madras State Cotton Committee :* J. O. J. Barnes. *Port Pilferage Committee :* J. G. Young. *Madras City Improvement Trust :* E. deB. Elphick. *Regional Advisory Committee—M. & S. M. Railway :* E. J. M. Leigh. *Regional Advisory Committee—S. I. Railway :* C. B. Francis. *Ex-Services Association (India)—Madras Branch :* I. Cumming. *Posts & Telegraphs Advisory Committee :* I. Cumming. *Executive Committee of the Tuberculosis Ex-Patients Colony Tambaram :* A. Sinclair Rose. *State Advisory Committee on Forest Utilization :* N. F. Still. *Merchant Seamen's Welfare Committee, Madras :* E. W. D. Jeffares. *Seamen's Institute :* C. F. Turpin.

Office :—"Dare House," First Line Beach, Madras.

Maharashtra Chamber of Commerce.—Bombay, was established in 1927 with the object of establishing friendly relations among the commercial community of Maharashtra, safeguarding their interests, collecting financial, industrial and trade statistics and disseminating information thereof amongst members of the Chamber.

Membership of the Chamber is open to all carrying on trade, commerce and industry in Maharashtra area in Bombay State irrespective of caste, creed or community.

The Chamber is recognised by the Government of India and the Bombay Government and other Government and Semi-Government Institutions. The Chamber is affiliated to the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry, New Delhi; Indian National Committee of the International Chamber of Commerce; and is a member of the Indian Standards Institute and of the Indian Council of World Affairs.

Chamber's representatives on various bodies are :—

Bombay Port Trust :—M. L. Dahanukar; *M. S. M. Rly. Branch Advisory Committee :*—P. R. Ambike; *Bombay Board of Communications :* S. S. Naik; *Poona University :* Prof. D. R. Gharpure, M.A., B.Sc.; *R. A. Podar College of Commerce :*—G. V. Puranik.

The Chamber issues a monthly magazine "Vaibhav" and distributes it free of cost to its members. Annual Subscription Rs. 5.

The Chamber has over 650 members.

Office Bearers :—

President :—W. W. Wagh.

Vice-Presidents :—L. S. Dabholkar, L. H. Kanhere and S. G. Padhye.

Secretary :—D. V. Kelkar, M.A.

Address :—Industrial Assurance Building, Churchgate, Fort, Bombay.

Telephone : 26348. *Telegrams :* MAHACOM.

Mahratta Chamber of Commerce and Industries.—The Mahratta Chamber of Commerce and Industries is an institutional organisation representing the economic, commercial and industrial interests of Maharashtra.

Members, Funds and Properties.—The Chamber was established in 1934. Shreemant Sir Malojirao Naik Nimbalkar, Minister for Development, Industries and Labour, Bombay Government, and 40 other leading industrialists, businessmen firms and Joint Stock Companies are among its patrons. The Chamber conducts a Marathi Commercial Monthly named the "*Sampada*" for the benefit of its members and others.

Object and Activities.—Its principal object is to work for the commercial and industrial development of Maharashtra as an integral part of India, through local initiative and effort, and to infuse confidence in the people of the area in the management of economic and financial institutions on modern lines. Among the more note-worthy achievements of the Chamber can be mentioned the promotion of the Bank of Maharashtra, a leading Maharashtrian Joint Stock Bank conducted and managed by Maharashtrians, the encouragement of local enterprise in the field of general insurance business, successful advocacy for grant of post-war protection to cocoa-powder and cocoa-chocolate and hurricane lantern industries and protect the power-loom industry.

Every year this Chamber awards the G. S. Parkhe Industrial Merit Prizes and organises the G. P. Ogale Memorial Lecture on economic subjects and also awards to a student of the Brihan Maharashtra College of Commerce the B. S. Kamat Memorial Prize.

Government Recognition and Representations on Various Bodies.—The Chamber has received the recognition of the Central as well as the Bombay State Governments. It is represented on the Board of Trustees of the Lord Reay Maharashtra Industrial Museum, Poona; the Advisory Committee of the Sub-Regional Employment Exchange, Poona Area; the Local Advisory Committee of the M. & S. M. Railway, for the Bombay State; the Telephone Advisory Committee, Poona; Bombay Board of Communication, Bombay State; on the Regional Post and Telegraph Advisory Committee, Bombay Circle; State Advisory Council of Industries, Bombay; Police Advisory Committee, Poona; Goods Shed Advisory Committee, Poona. It is one of the two Chambers named for electing two representatives on behalf of trade, industry and commerce on the Court of the Poona University.

OFFICE-BEARERS

President :—G. G. Dandekar ; *Working President* :—D. V. Potdar, B.E. (Elec.), B.E. (Mech.), A.M.I.E. (India) ; *Founder Honorary Secretaries* :—A. R. Bhat, M.Com. ; G. D. Apte, B.A., G.D.A., F.C.A. ; *Deputy Secretary* :—D. B. Kerur, M.A.

Address :—Mahratta Chamber's Building, 587/9, Shukrawar Peth, Tilak Road, Poona 2.

Grams :—" Comindus".

Phone :—3238.

Merchants' Chamber of U. P., Kanpur.—The Merchants' Chamber of U. P. was established in November, 1932, with the object of safeguarding the interests of trade and industry in Uttar Pradesh, providing regular and efficient statistical and intelligence service to the business firms and generally helping the promotion of trade and business in Uttar Pradesh through proper organisation of commercial opinion. The Chamber represents almost entirely Indian capital and has affiliated to its membership, Cotton Mills, Sugar Mills, Jute Mills. Silk weaving and Hosiery works, Oil Mills, Banks and Firms engaged in extensive dealings in Piece-goods, country produced Hide and Leather. Ten Commercial Organisations and Trade Associations of the State are also affiliated to the Chamber. The Chamber maintains a ceaseless channel of correspondence with the Central and State Governments and the various Railways on all points of commercial grievances, whether of general or of specific interest. It issues every month an English and Hindi Bulletin to its members who are scattered over the entire State. The report of the activities of the Chamber is a regular feature of the daily press of the State. The Chamber is represented on the U.P. Legislative Assembly, Court of the Lucknow University, Rly. Advisory Committees, State Economic Advisory Board, State Board of Agriculture and Animal Husbandry, Kanpur Municipal Board, and about 15 other spheres of public service. The constitution of the Chamber which is registered under the Indian Companies Act, 1913, with a license under Section 26, provides for an Executive consisting of a President, a Vice-President and 19 Members of the Council. A wholetime Secretary is attached to the Council.

President :—Lala Parshottamdas Singhania.

Vice-President :—Kishen Narain.

Secretary :—J. V. Krishnan, M.A., B.Com.

Asst. Secretary.—R. Chandra, M.A., B.Com.

Head Asstt.—Shri Ram, B.Com.

Office.—15/57, Civil Lines, Kanpur.

Grams.—" Mercham."

Phone.—Kanpur No. 2469.

Punjab Chamber of Commerce.—The Punjab Chamber of Commerce has its headquarters at New Delhi and exists for the protection of mercantile interests on the usual lines in the Punjab, Delhi and Northern India. Memberships generally is restricted to Banks, Merchants (wholesale), Railways and proprietors of large industrial interests. The entrance fee is Rs. 500 and the rate of subscription Rs. 300 per year for every member whether he has a place of business in Delhi proper, or outside. The Chamber is a member of the Federation of Chambers of Commerce of the British Empire, London and the Associated Chambers of Commerce of India, Calcutta. The Chamber is represented on the Municipal Committee of Delhi as well as various other Committees and Local Government Bodies.

Office-bearers for 1950-51 :—J. F. Sinclair, New Delhi (*Chairman, Managing Committee*) ; S. P. Virmani, Amritsar (*Dy. Chairman*).

Address :—Scindia House, Curzon Road, Post Box No. 24, New Delhi 1.

Phone : No. 42127.

Grams :—" Chamber," New Delhi.

Southern India Chamber of Commerce.—Indian Chamber Buildings, Madras.—The Southern India Chamber of Commerce established in 1909 has its Registered Office in Madras. The objects of the Chamber are those usual for such bodies, concerning the promotion of trade, especially in the Madras State, and the interests of members. Special objects are stated to be: —

To maintain a Library of books and publications of commercial interest, so as to diffuse commercial information and knowledge amongst its members;

To establish Museums of commercial products or organise exhibitions, either on behalf of the Chamber or in co-operation with others.

There are three classes of members, Affiliated, Resident and non-Resident. The usual conditions as to eligibility for election prevail.

The Chamber is a member of the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce, the Indian Chamber of Commerce in Great Britain, and the Indian National Committee of the International Chamber of Commerce, Paris.

The Chamber holds survey and arbitration, issues certificates of origin and certificates of invoices; certificates of sampling, analysis and weights.

The right of electing three representatives to the Madras Port Trust was accorded to the Chamber by the Madras Port Trust Amendment Act, 1941. Members of the Chamber hold seats in the Madras Legislative Assembly, and the Chamber has also been accorded the right of electing a representative to that body. Co-jointly with the Nattukottai Nagarathars Association the Chamber has the right of electing a representative to the Federal Assembly. Under the Madras City Municipal Amending Act, 1936, the Chamber has the right of electing one Councillor to the Madras Corporation. Under the State Aid to Industries Act, 1923, the Chamber has the right to elect one member to the Board of Industries.

The Chamber also sends its representatives to the Madras Legislative Assembly, the Madras Port Trust, the South Indian Railway Local Advisory Committee, the M. & S. M. Railway Local Advisory Committee, Senate of the Madras University, Senate of the Annamalai University, Board of Industries, Board of Communications, the City Improvement Trust, the Indian Tea Market Expansion Board, the Textile Trade Marks Advisory Committee, the Madras Port Committee and the Board of Referees, Excess Profits Tax.

The Chamber has about 900 members on the rolls and has its own building. Forty-eight Associations in the City of Madras and Chambers of Commerce in the mofussil have been affiliated to this Chamber.

President :—Rao Bahadur V. S. Subramaniam.

Vice-Presidents :—R. K. Murthi and M. A. Chidambaram Chettiar.

Secretary :—K. A. Menon (Ag.).

U. P. Chamber of Commerce, Kanpur.—The U. P. Chamber of Commerce established in 1914, represents all the important commercial and industrial interests of Uttar Pradesh. The Chamber is recognised both by the State and Central Governments and jointly returns representative to the Uttar Pradesh Legislative Assembly. It is represented on the Kanpur Municipal Board, the Local Advisory Committee of the East Indian Railway, Great Indian Peninsula Railway, Rohilkhund Kumaon Railway, Bengal and North-Western Railway and on the Informal Committee of the East Indian Railway. The Chamber's representatives also sit on the State Boards of Industries, Economic Enquiry and Agriculture, High School and Intermediate Education and Governing bodies of Government, Textile and Dyeing and Printing Schools, Agricultural College, Sir H. B. Technological Institute, Kanpur, Board of Traffic and Communications, Senate of the Lucknow University, and Employment Board, U.P. and various other public bodies in the State. The Chamber is affiliated to the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry as also to the National Committee of the International Chamber of Commerce.

Membership :—Any firm, individual, company, corporation or association engaged or interested in trade, commerce or industry is eligible for membership of the Chamber.

The number of members on register is 260.

The following are the office-bearers of the Chamber for the current year.

President.—H. S. Bagla.

Vice-Presidents.—D. P. Singh and B. P. Srivastava.

Secretary :—Ram Lal Kapur.

Jt. Secretary.—R. L. Aurora.

Assistant Secretary :—P. K. Menon, B.A.

Technical Adviser :—S. R. Rallan, B.Com. (Hons.).

Upper India Chamber of Commerce.—The Upper India Chamber of Commerce, established in 1888, is concerned with trade, commerce and manufactures in Uttar Pradesh and has its registered office at Kanpur. Members are elected by the Committee, subject to confirmation by the next general meeting of the Chamber. Men distinguished for public service, or eminent in commerce or manufactures, may be elected honorary members of the Chamber by the members in a General Meeting and such shall be exempted from paying any subscription to the Chamber. There is no entrance fee for membership, but subscriptions are payable as follows:—A firm, company or association having its place of business in Kanpur, Rs. 500 a year ; an individual member resident or carrying on business in Kanpur, Rs. 500 ; firms or individuals having their places of business or residence outside Kanpur pay Rs. 150 a year but the maintenance of a branch office in Kanpur necessitates payment of full rates.

The affairs and funds of the Chamber are managed by a Committee of ten members, which has power to constitute Local Committees of from four to seven members each at trade centres where membership is sufficiently numerous to justify the step. Such Local Committees have power to communicate only with the Central Committee.

The Chamber appoints Arbitration Tribunals for the settlement and adjustment of disputes, when invited to do so, members of the Tribunals being selected from a regular printed list of arbitrators.

The Chamber has a membership of 128 excluding 2 honorary, 12 affiliated members.

President :—Sir Arthur Inskip, Kt., C.B.E., O.B.E., E.D.

Vice-President :—H. Jackson, M.B.E.

Secretary.—S. V. Subramaniam.

Head Clerk.—R. K. Mehra.

INDEX NUMBERS OF PRICES

INDEX numbers of prices reflect the movement of prices within the economic system of a country. From the point of view of the State Governments in this country, they are the basis for determining the land revenue assessments.

WHOLESALE PRICE INDEX

The compilation of index number of wholesale prices has been undertaken since 1913. For this purpose, 1914 was taken as the basic year and the data collected for Calcutta and Bombay. In the latter case, another series was undertaken on the basis of the 1929 price level computed as 100. Today several State Governments publish fortnightly and monthly statements of retail and wholesale prices of certain important commodities.

The following table gives the index numbers of wholesale prices for Calcutta and Bombay from 1914 to 1939 :—

(End of July 1914=100).

Year	Calcutta	Bombay
1914 ..	100	100
1920 ..	201	..
1921 ..	179	198
1933 ..	87	98
1936 ..	91	96
1937 ..	102	106
1938 ..	95	101
1939 ..	108	109

The outbreak of the Second World War brought to the forefront the need for better compilation of price statistics and the Economic Adviser to the Government of India proposed the week ended August 19, 1939 as the base for compilation of index numbers of wholesale prices in India by groups of articles. This was a sensitive index. Subsequently, another index for general purposes was also introduced with the year ended August 1939 as the base.

The following table relates to the index numbers of wholesale prices since 1939-40 on the basis of the average of monthly figures and of the week ended August 19, 1939 being equivalent to 100 :—

Year	Agricultural Commodities	Raw Materials	Primary Commodities	Manufactured Articles	Chief Articles of Export	General Index
1939–40*	127·5	118·8	124·2	131·5	130·5	125·6
1940–41	108·6	121·5	113·4	119·8	114·1	114·8
1941–42	124·2	146·9	132·5	154·5	137·3	137·0
1942–43	166·2	165·9	166·0	190·4	161·7	171·0
1943–44	268·7	185·0	232·5	251·7	233·4	236·4
1944–45	265·4	206·0	240·5	258·3	243·9	244·2
1945–46	272·6	210·0	246·2	240·0	248·9	244·9
1946–47	313·8	235·3	280·0	259·1	296·8	275·4
1947–48	356·9	254·0	312·6	287·8	..	307·0

* Seven months ended March 1940.

The index numbers of wholesale prices of slightly different groupings with the year ended August 1939 as the base, are given below :—

Year and Month	Food Articles	Industrial Raw Materials	Semi-Manufactures	Manufactured Articles	Miscellaneous	General Index
1948–49	382·9	444·8	327·3	346·1	525·2	376·2
1949–50	391·3	471·7	331·6	347·2	570·7	385·4
1950						
January ..	379·1	486·2	335·6	344·6	614·9	384·7
February	395·3	493·3	338·1	346·5	632·3	392·3
March ..	396·2	490·1	338·2	347·4	630·6	392·4
April ..	399·3	483·9	332·7	347·8	620·0	391·3
May ..	401·2	485·9	335·0	348·3	642·4	393·3
June ..	402·8	490·7	335·5	347·6	692·0	395·6
July ..	422·8	505·9	339·6	348·2	708·9	405·2
August ..	426·5	513·1	343·8	349·9	727·3	409·2
September	430·4	517·0	346·9	350·4	760·8	412·5
October ..	427·3	520·1	346·9	350·4	728·6	411·2
November	424·3	522·0	347·9	349·5	744·7	410·9
December	423·9	533·8	351·0	350·0	718·0	412·6
1951						
January ..	413·5	552·0	358·8	353·5	701·1	414·3
February	414·0	556·5	371·6	369·7	706·3	423·4
March ..	412·0	608·9	381·4	387·2	753·4	438·6

Index Numbers of cost of Living (Working Class)

	Base : August 1939 = 100								1944 = 100						
	Bombay			West Bengal	Uttar Pradesh	Madras	Madhya Pradesh		Delhi	Ajmer	Bihar		Assam	Orissa	West Bengal
	Bombay	Ahmedabad	Sholapur	Calcutta	Kanpur	Madras	Nagpur	Jabalpur	Delhi	Ajmer	Jharia	Jamshedpur	Gauhati	Cuttack	Kharagpur
1946–47	252	291	303	N.A.	338	246	292	*310	110	122	126	—	89	109	N.A.
1947–48	268	303	349	N.A.	389	289	329	333	124	160	144	—	101	119	N.A.
1948–49	297	341	415	345	498	320	379	129† 151	133	161	154	137	124	136	136
1949–50	291	343	406	349	460	330	374	150	132	163	163	138	126	153	136
April 1950 ..	292	366	412	333	420	327	367	153	129	167	169	134	122	159	136
May 1950 ..	297	363	396	342	423	328	370	151	131	169	170	136	124	160	137
June 1950 ..	297	363	389	355	432	330	372	152	133	165	175	137	126	162	139
July 1950 ..	304	363	395	360	439	333	375	155	136	168	188	141	128	163	140
August 1950 ..	307	371	396	368	444	334	377	154	136	168	209	159	128	164	141
Sept. 1950 ..	308	371	401	366	445	335	378	151	134	168	207	162	128	168	138
Oct. 1950 ..	304	342	399	358	447	337	378	155	134	172	215	157	131	168	141
Nov. 1950 ..	297	330	388	355	444	333	376	158	133	167	187	156	128	168	137

* Base—August 1939 = 100. † The base was charged to 1944 = 100.

PRODUCTION TRENDS

The trend of the prices depend on domestic production minus exports, imports, and the demand. These normal forces have been further regulated by the policy of controls pursued by the Union Government and the States.

Agricultural production in 1948-49 (July to June) was adversely affected by the failure of monsoon over large tracts in Western India and Gujarat and by floods in Uttar Pradesh and Bihar. A cyclone in November 1948 caused substantial damage to the standing crops over large areas and the production of foodgrains declined from 44·39 million tons in 1947-48 to 44·26 million tons in 1948-49. During the 1949-50 season, the outturn of kharif crops suffered appreciably as a result of heavy rains in Uttar Pradesh, floods in Bihar and a cyclone in Madras. In the following year, the crop was affected by the floods and earthquake in Assam and irregular rains in other parts of the country and the supply position was so desperate at the end of 1950 that Government were obliged to reduce the quantum in areas where there was statutory rationing and raise the import programme precisely at a time when the foreign food prices had assumed an upward trend and the freight market was exceptionally tight.

The statement below shows the trend in production of industrial raw materials between 1938-39 and 1949-50. Production of five main oilseeds fell despite the rise in their prices from 5·12 million tons in 1947-48 to 4·52 million tons in 1948-49 due probably to unfavourable seasonal conditions. Raw cotton production showed a sharp fall from 21·88 lakh bales in 1947-48 to 18·64 lakhs bales in 1948-49; but the efforts made thereafter to boost production, including the rise in the official ceiling prices, yielded tangible results. The output during 1949-50 season was about 28 lakh bales and in 1950-51 season about 32 lakh bales. Similar efforts in respect of raw jute raised its production from 16·58 lakh bales in 1947-48 and 16·58 lakh bales in the following year to 31·17 lakh bales in 1949-50 as against the country's total needs of 71 lakh bales.

Production of Industrial Raw Materials in the Indian Union

Commodity	Unit	1947	1948	1949	1950
Oilseeds	000 tons	5,148	5,117	4,516	5,095
Cotton	000 bales	2,125	2,188	1,864	2,800
Jute	000 bales	1,320	1,658	2,055	3,117
Lac	000 mds.	1,767	972	806	1,101
Mica	000 cwts.	193	152	..	..
Iron Ore	000 tons	2,498	2,285	..	..
Manganese Ore	000 tons	451	467	544	..
Rubber	000 tons	16	15	16	..
Raw Hides	lakhs nos.	..	..	190	..
Raw Skins	lakhs nos.	..	..	..	..
Silk Raw..	000 lbs.	2,122	2,232	2,071	..

With a view to raising supplies in 1951, the Government of India expanded the scope of the open general licence for imports. India also participated in the International Materials Conference and secured a seat on two committees.

The recovery in industrial production noticed in 1948 continued in the following two years. Most of the industries recorded further improvement with the important exceptions of cotton textiles and jute manufactures. The progress in recovery was mainly attributable to a distinct improvement in transport and in the labour situation. In November 1950 a development committee was established to suggest measures for securing a full utilisation of installed capacity and reducing production costs. The trend of industrial production is given below :—

Industry	Unit	1947	1948	1949
Finished Steel	000 tons	893	854	927
Cotton Yarn	million lbs.	1,296	1,448	1,359
Cotton Piecegoods	million yards	3,762	4,319	3,904
Jute Manufactures	000 tons	1,052	1,091	946
Paper and Paper Board ..	000 cwts.	1,862	1,958	2,064
Sulphuric Acid	000 cwts.	1,200	1,600	1,989
Ammonium Sulphate	000 tons	21·3	35·2	45·9
Paints	000 cwts.	772	715	619
Matches	million gross	23·3	26·7	26·3
Sugar	000 tons	925	1,000	1,045
Cement	000 tons	1,448	1,553	2,102
Salt	000 mds.	51,602	63,524	55,616
Coal Raisings	000 tons	30,000	29,822	31,450

REVIEW OF PRICES

The outbreak of the Second World War in September 1939 introduced a new chapter in the history of Indian commodity prices. After an initial rise, the prices received a sharp setback following the loss of export markets; but the entry of Japan into the war made heavy calls on India's resources from the Allies and the resultant rise in note circulation aggravated inflationary pressures and the pace of the rise. The index number of wholesale prices, with the week ended August 19, 1939 equal to 100, rose to 125·6 in 1939-40, but receded in the following year by 10·8 to 114·8. Since then it advanced by 19 per cent. to 137·0 in 1941-42, further by 25 per cent. to 171·0 in 1942-43 and recorded the highest rise of 38 per cent. in any one year during 1943-44 when it touched 236·4. During 1944-45 the price index advanced by only 7·8 to 244·2 and reached 244·9 in the following year. It was during 1946-47 that the policy of decontrol sent up the general price index by about 11 per cent. to 275·4 and further to 307·0 in 1947-48.

Price trends during 1948-49 fell into two distinct phases—a continued rise from April to July and a comparative stability during the rest of the year, with signs of a downward trend in the last quarter of the year. The latter phase was associated with the reimposition of controls, and a net contraction of Rs. 18 crores in money supply during the last eight months of the year. The general index number, with the year ended August 1939 as the base, shot up from 347·9 to 389·6 by July and then tapered off to 370·2, the average for the year being 376·2 revealing a rise of 22 per cent. over the year.

With the opening of the new financial year, the prices began to advance upward till the Economic Adviser's general index, which stood at 370·2 in March 1949, touched 389·8 in September 1949 which exceeded the post-decontrol peak level reached in July 1948 and climbed to 393·3 in October 1949. The jump resulted in part from a sharp rise in the prices of certain export goods, in particular, tea, black pepper, oils and oilseeds. Following the devaluation of the rupee, the Government of India adopted an eight-point anti-inflationary programme including a voluntary cut in the prices of manufactured goods and brought down the price index from 393·3 in October to 381·3 in December 1949. These efforts, however, proved temporary and practically the whole of the improvement of the preceding two months was lost by the close of March 1950, the general index moving up to 392·4 in March. The average for the year worked out at 385·4 as against 376·2 in 1948-49.

During 1950-51 the price movement was governed by international factors. In the first quarter the general price index moved up from 391·3 in April to 395·6 in June. Then followed the Korean war, the re-armament drive in Europe and the huge U.S. stockpiling. The resultant boom in world commodity price, accentuated by hoarding on civilian account and shortages, sent up the prices to record levels. To prevent the impact of these world forces on the Indian price level, the Government of India promulgated on September 2, 1950 the Supply and Prices of Goods Ordinance. This was followed in January 1951 by efforts to secure raw materials at Government level, the participation in the International Materials Conference and its sub-committees in the following months and the liberalisation of import control in March 1951. The inflationary forces were visible throughout the world and these, coupled with acute shortages, sent up the import costs. Compared to June 1950, the general index for March 1951 showed a gain of 18·5 per cent. and stood at 438·6. Food index rose by only 2·5 per cent. and that of manufactured goods by 8·8 per cent. On the other hand the rise was most pronounced in the other three groups, industrial raw materials alone recording a jump of 24·1 per cent. The conclusion of the Indo-Pakistan trade agreement in the last week of February was followed by (1) decontrol of jute, raw and manufactured, (2) reduction in subsidy on imported food and (3) a sharp rise in cloth price with the result that the price trend was decidedly upward in 1951-52.

TRADE MARKS

THE Trade Marks Act, 1940 (Act V of 1940) was passed by the Indian Legislature in March 1940 to provide for the registration and more effective protection of trade marks. Sections 1 and 85 of the Act came into force at once, and under the latter section, intending applicants for registration were enabled to deposit their trade marks. About 158,000 trade marks were so deposited, which have since been classified and indexed.

Before the other provisions of the Act could be brought into force the Act was amended in 1941 (Act XXVII of 1941) to establish a separate Trade Marks Registry in Bombay under a Bombay Registrar with jurisdiction over textile marks only. The Amended Act came into force on the 1st June 1942, but had again to be amended by the Trade Marks Amendment Act, 1943. The Act was further amended in April 1946 (Act XII of 1946) with a view to avoiding conflict of registration in the Princely States which have either passed Trade Marks Act of their own or proposed to do so in the near future, and also to make trade marks registered in any territory effective in all territories in which trade marks legislation has been enacted.

On the Federal Financial Integration of States in April, 1950, the administration of trade marks in the States was taken over by the Centre and centralised at the Trade Marks Registry Bombay. With the extension of the Central laws to Part B and Part C States, the Trade Marks Act, 1940, now extends to the whole of India except Jammu and Kashmir.

The main office of the Trade Marks Registry is at Bombay, and the Register is also kept at Bombay. Mr. K. S. Shavaksha, B.A. (Oxon.), Bar-at-Law, is at present the Registrar of Trade Marks.

There are at present two branches of the Trade Marks Registry. One is established in Calcutta, at which a copy of the Register and the Refused Textile Marks List are kept. The Branch Registry is in charge of the Deputy Registrar who is empowered under section 4 (2A) of the Act to discharge, under the superintendence and direction of the Registrar, any function which under the Act may be discharged by the Registrar. Any reference in the Act to the Registrar includes a reference to the Deputy Registrar when so discharging any such function. Where the Registrar directs the Deputy Registrar to deal with a particular matter, he has in disposing of such matter the same powers as the Registrar. At present, the Deputy Registrar of Trade Marks is Mr. B. C. Ojha, B.A., Bar-at-Law, B.Com. The other branch is at Bangalore under the charge of an Examiner of Trade Marks.

The following is a summary of the important provisions of the Trade Marks Act, 1940:

A "mark" includes a device, brand, heading, label, ticket, name, signature, word, letter or numeral or any combination thereof; a "trade mark" means a mark used or proposed to be used in relation to goods for the purpose of indicating or so as to indicate a connection in the course of trade between the goods and some person having the right to use the mark. A trade mark may be registered only in respect of particular goods or classes of goods. Any person who is desirous of registering a mark should apply to the Registrar in the prescribed manner. The application may be made either at the Registry at Bombay or at the branch office at Calcutta, or Bangalore.

Under section 6 (1), distinctiveness is the prime requisite of a trade mark for registration. A registrable trade mark must consist of or contain at least one of the following essential particulars: (1) name of a company or individual represented in a special or particular manner, (2) signature of the applicant or some predecessor in business, (3) one or more invented words, (4) word or words, having no direct reference to the character or quality of the goods and not being according to its ordinary meaning a geographical name or surname or the name of a sect, caste or tribe in India and (5) any other distinctive mark. A mark consisting of a name, signature, or any word other than such as fall within the above description is not registrable except upon evidence of distinctiveness. In determining whether a trade mark is distinctive the extent of the inherent distinctiveness of the mark, as well as its acquired distinctiveness by use or otherwise, will be considered. The commonly accepted name of any single chemical element or chemical compound is not registrable in respect of a chemical substance or preparation. Trade marks which are contrary to law or morality, or disentitled to protection in a Court of Law by being likely to deceive or cause confusion or which are likely to hurt religious susceptibilities, are not registrable. The Act contains also special provisions for the registration of certification trade marks, and for defensive registration.

When an application for registration has been accepted subject to such conditions, if any, as the Registrar might think fit to impose, the Registrar shall cause the application to be advertised accordingly. Under section 15 (2) any person may in the prescribed manner oppose an application so advertised within 4 months, and after hearing the parties, the Registrar will decide whether registration is to be permitted. The date of registration of an application shall be the date of filing such application in the Registry.

The registration of a mark will be in force for 7 years in the first instance, after which it may be renewed for a period of 15 years. In all legal proceedings relating to a registered trade mark, the fact of registration shall be *prima facie* evidence of validity of the registration and of all subsequent assignments and transmissions. Further, after seven years from the date of registration, the validity of the original registration cannot be questioned except on grounds of fraud or deception or unless the mark offends against section 8.

The registered proprietor of a trade mark is entitled to an action for infringement under the Act. This valuable right is extended to owners of "old" marks, who had applied for registration of their trade marks within five years from the commencement of the Act and registration of which has been refused by the Registrar. The rights of action to passing off are not affected by registration, and are expressly preserved under the Act. Registration gives to the registered proprietor the exclusive right to the use of the trade mark in relation to the goods for which the mark is registered. Where a mark is already registered by one person, the same or nearly similar mark cannot be registered by another person, except in case of honest concurrent use or of other special circumstances section 10 (2).

The proprietor of a registered trade mark has power to assign the mark, and may assign it whether in connection with the goodwill of the business or not. A registered proprietor may also assign an unregistered trade mark without the goodwill of the business along with a registered trade mark under certain circumstances. Any assignment made without the goodwill of the business must be advertised as directed by the Registrar.

A person other than the proprietor of a mark may be registered as a registered user, on application being made both by the proprietor and such person to the Registrar in the prescribed manner, accompanied by particulars relating to their relationship, the control of the one over the other, and other facts relevant to the "permitted" use. The registered user may under certain circumstances file an action for infringement in his own name as if he were the proprietor, but cannot assign or transmit the mark.

Any person aggrieved by the presence of a mark or entry on the Register may apply in the prescribed manner to the Registrar or to a High Court for rectification of the Register. The registered proprietor may apply to the Registrar for correction or cancellation of any entry in the Register, relating to his trade mark. He may also apply for alteration of the registered mark in any manner not substantially affecting its identity.

With effect from the 1st January, 1947, it will be an offence to describe a trade mark as registered when it is not so registered. This will not however apply to a trade mark, for the registration of which an application had been filed at the Trade Marks Registry before 1st January 1947 and which has not been disposed of by the Registrar. The use of the word "Registered" however, is permissible if it is clearly indicated that the reference is to registration of the mark under the law of a country outside India or if the word is used solely in relation to goods to be exported to a foreign country where the mark is registered. Declaration of ownership of a trade mark under the Indian Registration Act of 1908 is not equivalent to registration under the Trade Marks Act, 1940, and the use of the word "registered" to signify registration of declaration of ownership would therefore be an offence with effect from the aforesaid date. The use of Royal Arms, Heraldic devices, and State emblems without due authority may be restrained by injunction from the Registrar or at the suit of any other person who is duly authorised to use such Arms, etc., but the rights to their use acquired before the coming into force of the Act, are not affected.

All appeals from the decisions of the Registrar lie to the High Court.

There are also special provisions for registration of textile trade marks and for the constitution of an Advisory Committee to advise the Registrar with respect to usages of the textile trade.

The criminal law relating to trade marks is contained in the Merchandise Marks Act (IV of 1889), which has recently been amended. Section 3 of this Act enacts Sections 478—489 of Chapter XVIII of the Indian Penal Code.

During the transitional period, *i.e.* from the 15th August 1947 to the 31st March 1948, the Trade Marks Registry, Bombay had been registering trade marks for both India and Pakistan in accordance with the special provisions made in the Indian Independence (Miscellaneous Transitional Provisions) Order, 1947. These arrangements, however, terminated on the 31st March 1948. The Trade Marks Act, 1940 now extends to the whole of India except Jammu and Kashmir.

PATENTS AND DESIGNS

THE law relating to Patents and Designs in India is contained in the Indian Patents and Designs Act, 1911, as amended from time to time, ending with the Indian Patents and Designs (Amendment) Act, 1950 (XXXII of 1950), and other *ad hoc* and ancillary legislations thereto and the Rules issued thereunder.

This law at present extends to the whole of India except the State of Jammu and Kashmir. With the extension of the Law to the whole of the Indian Union, the existing patent laws, if any, in the "Indian States" have been repealed. The law does not extend to Pakistan, United Kingdom or any British possession.

The Patent Office at Calcutta which was established under the Indian Patents and Designs Act for the purpose of administering this Act continues to be the Patent Office for the Union of India. The Office at Calcutta is in charge of the Controller of Patents and Designs.

India is not a party to the International Convention for the Protection of Industrial Property. But, arrangements for giving "Priority" patents and registered designs exist between India on the one side and each of the following countries on the other, *viz.*, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, Eire, the United Kingdom, the Union of South Africa, and Pakistan. In the case of Ceylon, priority arrangements exist in respect of patents only and not in respect of designs.

PATENTS

The main provisions of the Indian Patents and Designs Act which regulate the granting of patents and patent rights are briefly as follows :—

Varieties of Patents.—The Act provides for the granting of four kinds of patents, namely :—

(*i*) a patent, which is dated as of the official date of the application for the patent;

(*ii*) a patent of addition, for improvement or modification of an invention for which invention a patent has already been applied for or granted;

(*iii*) a secret patent for an invention relating to instruments or munitions of war;

(*iv*) a patent claiming "Priority," which is dated as of the official date of the corresponding application for patent first made in a country outside India which has established reciprocal arrangements with India for mutual protection of inventions.

What may be Patented.—The subject-matter of a patent should be a "manner of new manufacture," which may be any process or apparatus for producing, preparing, or making an article, or any article of manufacture. It is essential that the process, apparatus or article of manufacture should suggest an act to be done or an operation to be performed, and that the result must be a vendible product.

Illustrations of patentable inventions are new textile machines, power plants, agricultural implements, domestic appliances, drying and moistening apparatus and processes, and sanitary appliances. New compositions of matter may also be patented if their properties would not be deducible from known properties of their constituent substances. In the field of chemical industry, new processes and apparatuses for manufacturing synthetic products, food stuffs, dyes, soda ash, caustic soda, bleaching powder, toilet preparations and processes for the treatment of oil seeds, by-products and waste materials, would be patentable inventions.

The discovery of a hitherto unknown natural law is not patentable. Similarly, a method of calculation or a new notation for writing music, a new method of curing diseases, natural substances suitable for food, cannot be classed as 'manufactures,' and are, therefore, not patentable.

What are commonly called "patent medicines" are medicines prepared by secret formulæ and are not usually protected by the grant of patents. The proprietors of such medicines may in most cases possess trade mark rights in the names by which the medicines are known. "Patent or proprietary medicines" may be registered under the Drugs Act, 1940, which contains provisions for the prohibition of the import, manufacture and sale of mis-branded drugs. Applications for registration of patent or proprietary medicines should be made to the Central Drugs Laboratory, 110, Chittaranjan Avenue, Calcutta.

Who may obtain Patent.—Any person in possession of an invention may obtain a patent, irrespective of his nationality. The term "person" includes a company, a firm or a partnership. An application for an ordinary patent (*i.e.*, a patent which would be dated as of the official date of the application) may be made by any person either alone or jointly with others. An application for a patent of addition may be made only by the applicant for the original patent to which it is an addition as long as the application for the original patent is pending, or by the registered proprietor of the original patent if it has been granted. An application for a secret patent should be made by the inventor himself. An application for a patent which claims a "Priority date" may be made by the person who has made the application on which the claim to priority is based, or by his legal representative, or assignee, either alone or jointly with others.

Government Servants.—Subject to any special conditions of service or to any special orders applicable to the persons employed in any particular department, all government servants are at liberty to apply for a patent direct to the Patent Office. Government servants employed in the Defence Services, in the Indian Navy and in the Indian Air Force should not apply for patents except in the manner laid down in the Special Regulations applicable to them. Government servants employed on scientific or technical research should not apply or cause or permit any other person to apply for a patent for an invention made by them, save with the permission of the Government and in accordance with such conditions as the Government may impose. Railway servants are also subject to similar restrictions.

PROCEDURE FOR OBTAINING PATENTS

An application for a patent should be drawn up on the prescribed form and forwarded to the Controller of Patents and Designs, the Patent Office, No. 214, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta 17. As a rule, the inventor, or his legal representative or his assignee should be a party to the application. The application should be accompanied by a specification in duplicate, prepared on the appropriate prescribed form, and also the prescribed fee.

Specifications.—The specification which should accompany an application may be either a Provisional Specification or a Complete Specification. A Provisional Specification should describe the nature of the invention. A Complete Specification must particularly describe and ascertain the nature of the invention and the manner of performing it in practice. A Provisional Specification cannot be filed in respect of an application claiming "Priority date." A Complete Specification should, therefore, accompany every such application.

If a Provisional Specification accompanies an application it will be necessary to file the Complete Specification within 9 months from the date of the application. This period of nine months may be extended by one month by paying an additional fee of Rs. 10.

Drawings.—If the invention is capable of illustration by means of drawings, suitable drawings should also be filed in duplicate.

Fees.—The fees payable in respect of the filing of an application accompanied by a Provisional Specification is Rs. 10, and in respect of the filing of an application accompanied by a Complete Specification is Rs. 30. The fee payable in respect of filing a Complete Specification following a Provisional Specification is Rs. 20.

The fees may be paid in cash at the Patent Office, or may be sent by Postal Order, Money Order or Cheque, made payable to the Controller at Calcutta.

Examination.—An application properly filed in the Patent Office is accorded a serial number and date. Every application in respect of which a Complete Specification has been filed is, before it is accepted, examined with a view to ascertaining mainly whether the invention is *prima facie* a manner of new manufacture or improvement, whether the nature of the invention or the manner of performing it is particularly described, and also whether the statement of claim sufficiently defines the invention.

Acceptance.—On the acceptance of an application (other than an application for a secret patent), the specification and drawings in respect of it become open to public inspection. The acceptance is advertised by the Patent Office in the Gazette of India. The specification and drawings are also printed and a limited number of printed specifications are made available for sale. Printed specifications are identified by their serial numbers and are sold by the Manager of Publications, Civil Lines, Delhi, at Re. 1 a copy.

Opposition :—The grant of a patent on any application (other than an application for a secret patent) may be opposed by any person within 4 months of the date of advertisement of its acceptance.

Some of the grounds on which the grant of a patent may be opposed are—that the invention sought to be patented has been publicly used or made publicly known in any part of India; that the nature of the invention or the manner of performing it is not sufficiently or fairly described in the specification; or that the applicant for patent is not the true inventor but the applicant obtained the invention from the opponent or from a person through whom he claims.

Sealing the Patent.—In the absence of any opposition, or in the event of an opposition if the application passes the opposition successfully, the Patent Office would send the applicant a sealing fee demand notice, and on receipt from him of his request for sealing the patent accompanied by a sealing fee of Rs. 30, a patent is sealed on the application and the sealing is notified in the Register of Patents.

TERM AND CONTINUANCE

The normal term of a patent other than a patent of addition is 16 years from its date; but in special circumstances the term may be extended for a further period not exceeding 10 years. A patent of addition remains in force as long as the main patent is in force.

The continuance of a patent other than a patent of addition and a secret patent is subject to the payment of certain renewal fees. No renewal fees are payable for the continuance of patents of addition and secret patents.

To compensate patentees for losses due to circumstances arising out of the recent war and civil disturbances that followed in its wake, an *ad hoc* legislation, called the "Patents (Extension of Term) Ordinance, 1948 (Ordinance No. XXVI of 1948)" was promulgated by the then Governor-General. The said Ordinance came into force on the 1st October 1948 and expired on the 31st March 1949. According to this Ordinance patents of the category specified in

Sections 2 and 3 thereof have been granted an extension of their term for five years, without prejudice to their being further extended under Section 15 of the principal Act.

Effect of Grant.—The grant of a patent under the Act confers upon the patentee the exclusive privilege of making, selling and using the invention throughout India and of authorising others to do so.

After a patent is obtained, the patentee may sell the patent outright, or may grant licences for its exploitation, or may work the patent himself.

Infringement of Patents.—If, during the continuance of a patent, any person makes, sells, or uses the invention protected by the patent without obtaining a licence from the patentee, or counterfeits or imitates it, the patentee may institute a suit for infringement against such person. The defendant in an infringement suit may counter-claim the revocation of the patent.

A suit for infringement may be instituted in a District Court having jurisdiction to try the suit, but when a counter-claim has been made for the revocation of the patent, the suit along with the counter-claim is decided by a High Court.

Compulsory Licence.—As a safeguard against abuse of monopoly rights, provisions have been made in the Act, so as to enable any interested member of the public to apply to the Controller for a compulsory licence. The grounds on which a compulsory licence may be applied for, the relief available, procedure for disposal of the application, appeals, and procedure for disposal of appeals are respectively laid down in sections 22, 23, 23D, 23F and 23G of the Act.

Licences of Right.—As a supplementary provision, the Act has also conferred on the Central Government the right to apply to the Controller for endorsement of patents with the words " Licence of Right ". The effect of such endorsement is given in section 23B of the Act. Procedure for disposal, appeals and procedure for disposal of appeals are the same as those for a compulsory licence.

DESIGNS

The main provisions of the Act relating to the registration of designs and registered designs are briefly as follows :—

A Design means only the features of shape, configuration, pattern or ornament, applied to an article by any industrial process or means. To be registrable under Part II of the Act, a design must be new or original, and must be applicable to an article. A model or principle of construction of an article, or anything which in substance is a mere mechanical device cannot be registered as a design. Trade Marks and trade names are not designs for the purpose of the Act. Literary or artistic creations such as books, pictures and music which fall under the Indian Copyright Act III of 1914, do not also come within the scope of the Indian Patents and Designs Act.

The novelty or the originality of a design is judged solely by the eye with reference to the external appearance of the finished article to which the design is applied. Neither the constructional details of the article which would not be visible in the finished article, nor the utility of the article, would be relevant for deciding the registrability of the design. The novelty and the originality of a design will be destroyed by the publication of the design.

For purposes of registration of designs, goods to which the designs are to be applied have been grouped into fourteen classes according to the substances composing the article. If an article is composed of more than one substance, it is classified according to the predominant substance.

WHO MAY APPLY AND HOW

Any person claiming to be the proprietor of a new or original design not previously published in India may apply for the registration of the design.

An application for the registration of a design should be drawn up on the prescribed form and should be forwarded to the Controller of Patents and Designs. The prescribed fee and four copies of the design should accompany the application. The fee payable for filing an application for registration of a design in any one of the classes Nos. 1-12 is Rs. 3, and for registration in class No. 13 or 14 is annas eight only.

The copies of the design which should accompany an application may be drawings, photographs, tracings or specimens. The representation of the design should be such as would enable a person looking at it to form a mental picture of the shape, configuration, pattern or ornament of the finished article to which the design is to be applied. Representations illustrating merely the method or principle of construction or the operation of the article, are not suitable.

It is possible to register a design in more than one class, if the article to which it is to be applied is composed of substances included in different classes.

Copyright on Registration.—The registration of a design confers upon the registered proprietor, for a limited period, the exclusive right to sell or to make for sale any article to which the registered design has been applied.

The period of copyright obtainable on registration of a design is initially five years, but this initial period can be extended to two further periods of five years each, on payment of a fee of Rs. 10 for each period of extension.

Infringement.—During the existence of copyright in a registered design, the unauthorised application of the design to the article in question for purpose of sale is prohibited. The penalty for each infringement is a sum not exceeding five hundred rupees recoverable as a contract debt; the proprietor may, in the alternative, elect to bring a suit for the recovery of damages and for an injunction against the repetition of the infringement, in which case the infringer is liable to pay such damages as may be awarded. By an amendment made in Section 18 of the Indian Sea Customs Act (No. VIII of 1878), it has been rendered possible to stop the importation into India of goods bearing a pirated design.

Cancellation—The registration of a design may be cancelled on the ground that the design has been previously registered in India, or the design has been published in India prior to the date of registration, or the design is not new or original. An application for cancellation may be made by any interested person at any time to a High Court, or to the Controller within one year from the date of registration on the ground of prior registration or prior publication mentioned above.

Registers.—The Patent Office maintains a Register of Patents and a Register of Designs. Particulars of name, addresses, nationalities of the grantees of patents, the titles of inventions, dates of patents, renewal of patents and transactions affecting the proprietorship or validity of patents are notified in the Register of Patents. Similar particulars in respect of designs accepted for registration are notified in the Register of Designs. The Registers are open to inspection by the public on payment of a fee of Re. 1 in respect of each patent or design.

Certificates.—Certified copies, sealed with the seal of the Patent Office, of any entry in the Register of Patents and the Register of Designs may be obtained by any person on application to the Controller, accompanied by the prescribed fee.

A technical library is attached to the office. The library is open to the public, free of charge.

A Patents Enquiry Committee, presided over by Dr. Bakshi Tek Chand, Member of Parliament, submitted their final report to the Central Government on April 30, 1950. This report deals with all aspects of the subject and is priced Rs. 3 per copy. Copies of the report can be purchased from the Manager of Publications, Civil Lines, Delhi. The report is under consideration by the Central Government.

COPYRIGHT

COPYRIGHT in every original literary, dramatic, musical and artistic work means the sole right to produce or reproduce the work or any substantial part thereof in any material form whatsoever ; to perform or in case of a lecture to deliver the work or any substantial part thereof in public ; if the work is unpublished, to publish the work or any substantial part thereof. Amongst other things it includes the sole right to produce, reproduce, perform or publish any translation of the work; in the case of a dramatic work, to convert it into a novel or other non-dramatic work and in the case of a novel or other non-dramatic work or of an artistic work, to convert it into a dramatic work by way of performance in public or otherwise, and in the case of a literary dramatic or musical work, to make any record, perforated roll, cinematograph film or other contrivance by means of which the work may be mechanically performed or delivered. Copyright also includes the right to authorise any such acts as aforesaid.

Publication in relation to any work means the issue of copies of the work to the public but does not include the performance in public of a dramatic or musical work, the delivery in public of a lecture, the exhibition in public of an artistic work or the construction of an architectural work of art, but the issue of photographs and engravings of works of sculpture and architectural works of art shall not be deemed to be publication of such works.

COPYRIGHT ACT

Copyright in India is governed by the Indian Copyright Act III of 1914 which made the imperial Copyright Act of 1911 applicable to India with such modifications as appeared to be desirable for adapting its provisions to the circumstances of India. The portions of the Imperial Act made applicable to India form the First Schedule to the Indian Copyright Act III of 1914.

Copyright subsists throughout the parts of the Commonwealth to which the imperial Act extends. Registration is no longer necessary but the publisher of every book has to supply a copy thereof as provided in the Copyright Act and in the Press and Registration of Books Act XXV of 1867. The author of a work is the first owner of the copyright therein and may assign the right either wholly or partially (copyright being a bundle of different rights) and either generally or subject to limitations, or may grant any interest in the right by license to another person but no such assignment or grant is valid unless it is in writing signed by the owner of the right in respect of which the assignment or grant is made or by his duly authorised agent.

DURATION OF COPYRIGHT

Generally the term for which copyright subsists is the life of the author and a period of 50 years after his death but at any time after the expiration of 25 years or in the case of a work in which copyright subsisted at the time of the passing of the Imperial Act of 1911, 30 years from the death of the author of a published work, copyright in the work is not deemed to be infringed by the reproduction of the work for sale if the person reproducing the work proves that he has given the notice in writing prescribed by the Governor-General in Council[1] of his intention to reproduce the work and that he has paid in the prescribed manner to or for the benefit of the owner of the copyright, royalties in respect of all copies of the work sold by him calculated at the rate of 10 per cent. on the price at which he publishes the work.

If, at any time after the death of the author of a literary, dramatic or musical work, which has been published or performed in public, a complaint is made to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council[2] that the owner of the copyright in the work has refused to re-publish or allow the re-publication of the work or has refused to allow the performance in public of the work and that by reason of such refusal the work is withheld from the public, the owner of the copyright may be ordered to grant a licence to reproduce the work or perform the work in public as the case may be on such terms and subject to such conditions as the Judicial Committee may think fit.

DURATION OF SOLE OWNERSHIP

In the case of works first published in India copyright is subject to this limitation that the sole right to produce, reproduce, perform or publish a translation of the work subsists only for a period of 10 years from the date of the first publication of the work but if within the said period the author or any person to whom he has granted permission so to do publishes a translation of any such work in any language, copyright in such work as regards the sole right to produce, reproduce, perform or publish such translation in that language is not subject to the limitation above prescribed.

The term for which copyright subsists in photographs is 50 years from the making of the original negative from which the photograph was directly or indirectly derived and the person who was owner of such negative at the time when such negative was made is deemed to be the author of the work.

MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS

The provisions of the Act as to mechanical instruments for producing musical sounds were found unsuitable to Indian conditions. "The majority of Indian melodies," it was explained in Council, have not been published, *i.e.*, written in staff notation, except through the medium of the phonograph. It is impossible in many cases to identify the original composer or author, and the melodies are subject to great variety of notation and tune. To meet these conditions S. 5 of the Indian Act follows the English Musical Copyright Act of 1902 by defining musical work as meaning any combination of melody and harmony, or either of them, which has been reduced to writing.

The Copyright Act does not apply to designs capable of being registered under the Patents and Designs Act II of 1911 except designs which though capable of being so registered are not used or intended to be used as models or patterns to be multiplied by any industrial process.

INFRINGEMENT OF COPYRIGHT

Copyright in a work is considered to be infringed by any person who without the consent of the owner of the copyright does anything, the sole right to do which is conferred by the Copyright Act on the owner of the copyright. Where copyright in any work has been infringed, the owner is entitled to all remedies by way of injunction, damages and accounts. Every suit or other civil proceeding regarding infringement of copyright must be instituted and tried in the High Court or the Court of the District Judge. An action in respect of infringement of copyright cannot be commenced after the expiration of 3 years next after the infringement. No Court inferior to that of a Presidency Magistrate or a Magistrate of the First Class can try any offence against the Copyright Act. It is not an infringement of copyright to publish a report in a newspaper of an address of a political nature delivered at a public meeting.

In the case of a work of joint authorship (which means a work produced by the collaboration of two or more authors in which the contribution of one author is not distinct from the contribution of the other author or authors), copyright subsists during the life of the author who first dies and for a term of fifty years after his death, or during the life of the author who dies last, whichever period is the longer.

Where a married woman and her husband are joint authors of a work the interest of such married woman therein shall be her separate property.

1. Now the Government of India. 2. Now the Supreme Court.

BULLION

PRECIOUS metals have always held a great place in the Indian economy both for purposes of ornamentation and for their value as store mainly because of the insecurity, lack of alternative sources of investment, and the general illiteracy of the people. The demand, however, depends on the state of the crops and their prices, or the season of the year. If it is the season of festivals and marriages, for instance, the demand will be higher.

SILVER

Prior to the more intensive exploitation of the Mexican silver mines in 1552, Spain was the world's biggest supplier of silver; but thereafter the American Continent began to assume increasing importance and now its production represents under normal conditions about 80 per cent. of the world's total silver output, while Australia is considered highly important as a potential source of supply. The downward trend in world silver production, noticed since 1940, was reversed during 1947, the estimated output of the Western Hemisphere rising to 120·2 million ounces, an increase of 8·5 per cent. over 1946. The increase was accounted for entirely by the United States whose output rose from 21·7 million ounces to 33·5 million ounces. The recovery in output was checked in the following year; but since 1949 an upward trend is discernible.

Production.—The following table gives details about the American and Indian production of silver (in millions of fine ounces) since 1942 :—

	1942	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950*
United States of America	54·5	41·5	34·9	28·2	21·7	36·1	37·0	34·6	42·0
Mexico	80·7	71·2	63·0	61·1	48·3	49·2	46·0	49·5	47·0
Canada	22·0	18·2	14·7	13·9	13·7	13·5	16·0	18·2	21·5
Other Central and South American Countries	16·0	15·1	25·8	30·5	27·1	23·0	22·0	24·3	24·2
Western Hemisphere Total	173.2	146·0	138·4	133.7	110·8	121·8	121·0	126·6	134·7
India	0·020	0·019	0·014	0·014	0·010	0·012	0·015	....	....

* Estimated by Handy and Harman.

Production outside the Western Hemisphere is difficult to calculate because figures are so incomplete. Messrs. Handy and Harman, however, estimate it at 22.5 million ounces for 1950 as against 23 million ounces for 1949. This includes 10 million ounces in Austrlia, 5 million ounces in Belgian Congo, 1.5 million ounces in the rest of Africa, and 2.5 million ounces in Japan. Continental European output outside of Soviet controlled areas has been placed at 2.5 million ounces and Burma and New Zealand may have accounted for an additional one million ounces.

History.—During the last war, the demand for silver increased for coinage as well as for war industries with the result that the U. S. stocks of silver declined by 340 million ounces, that is, from 3,343 million ounces in 1942 to 3,003 million ounces in 1944. To meet the demand, the U. S. A. passed the Green Act in July 1943 by which 410·9 million ounces of silver was given by the U. S. A. as lease-lend to be returned again, ounce for ounce, within five years after the declaration of the end of the emergency by the U. S. President. But this condition forced India and Britain to withdraw silver currency after the end of the war, with the result that the monetary demand for silver in the post-war period showed a downward trend. Simultaneously, the higher prices checked the consumption of silver by industries. After three successive years of decline, the U. S. Government holdings of silver showed a small gain of 1½ million ounces at 2,718½ million ounces at the end of 1946. The United States Government's holdings of silver, which in 1946, tended to rise after three years of successive decline, rose phenomenally in 1947, the Treasury stocks including coins in circulation, soaring by 30 million ounces, from 2,718 million ounces to 2,748 million ounces. The large increase was due principally to purchases of domestic newly mined silver.

In the absence of an announcement by the U. S. President regarding the official termination of the war, no date had been fixed for the final settlement of the lend-lease silver accounts. The total outstanding of lend-lease silver as on December 31, 1947, stood at 410·5 million ounces.

Price movements of silver were largely governed by developments in silver legislation in the United States, the trend towards demonetisation and by the various restrictions on imports and exports. Following the expiry of the Green Act on December 31, 1945, a Silver Bill was enacted on July 31, 1946 authorising the Treasury to sell or lease for manufacturing use any silver, not pledged as monetary backing for silver certificates, at not less than 90½ cents per fine ounce and also to purchase all domestic silver mined after that day, if offered within one year after being mined, at a net price of 90½ cents. The tax of 50 per cent. on profits derived from transactions in silver, originally designed to prevent speculation at the expense of the Treasury, also continues to be in force in spite of considerable agitation.

The upward trend of the U. S. Treasury stocks of silver noticed since 1946, after three years of successive decline, continued showing a further increase to 2,820·8 million ounces at the end of 1949. On the other hand, the downward trend in the world's industrial demand noticed since 1946 was reversed, the estimated consumption rising from 121·3 million ounces in 1947 to 129·3 million ounces in 1948 as compared with the peak level of 176·5 million ounces in 1945. The monetary demand was also better.

The following table gives the average silver quotations in New York and London since 1939 :—

	New York Official	London Spot
	Cents	Pence
1939	39·082	20·570
1940	34·773	22·281
1941	34·783	23·439
1942	38·333	23·499
1943	44·750	23·500
1944	44·750	23·500
1945	51·928	30·510
1946	80·151	48·700
1947	71·820	44·440
1948	74·361	45·004
1949	71·930	49·243
1950	71·169	64·796

1950 MARKET

The following is a summary of the silver markets in 1950 as portrayed by Messrs. Handy and Harman :—

" The Price of silver during 1950 reacted only moderately to the growing inflation set off in June by the invasion of South Korea. Except for one sharp rise in October, the stable conditions of the previous two years continued in spite of a steadily increasing demand. Coinage orders from foreign governments were small, but consumption in arts and industries reached a new post-war high. Throughout the year the New York market demonstrated its ability to absorb substantial offerings of silver in excess of current production, and it is at present the only world market where business can be freely transacted in volume. The price ranged during the year from a low of 72 cents to a high of 80¼ cents. While this represents a somewhat sharper fluctuation than in the previous few years, nevertheless there were only five price changes recorded.

" Imports of silver into the New York market during 1950 reached a post-war high. We estimate that total imports of silver bullion, silver in unrefined materials, and in foreign coins, amounted to 139,300,000 for the year. Of this, about 101,100,000 ounces, or nearly 73 per cent. originated in the Western Hemisphere. We estimate imports of demonetized coinage, included in the above figures, at 37,300,000 ounces. Because of the absence of coinage orders from foreign governments, exports amounted to only 4,900,000 ounces during 1950.

" Based on the above figures, net imports for the year amounted to 134,400,000 ounces. Adjusting this figure for the export to Mexico of 1,400,000 ounces, which did not represent a reduction in available supplies, and for stocks in this country unsold over the year-end, which we estimate to be about 10,000,000 ounces, it would appear that approximately 125,800,000 ounces were available for consumption in the United States.

" Total Treasury silver stocks, including coins in circulation, were at 2,861,200,000 ounces on December 31, 1950, an increase of 40,400,000 ounces during the year. Actual figures for the first eleven months show an increase of 38,335,000 ounces, of which 38,170,000 ounces were newly-mined domestic production, purchased at 90½ cents per fine ounce under the Act of July 31, 1946, and 165,000 ounces were received in miscellaneous deposits. No returns against lend-lease obligations have been made since October 1947, and the total outstanding remains at 410,553,011 ounces.

" In the following table we have indicated the amounts of silver held in the Treasury and outside the Treasury, broken down as to bullion, silver dollars and subsidiary coins. Estimated figures as of December 31, 1950, are compared with those reported as of December 31, 1949.

(In Millions of Fine Ounces)

	Dec. 31 1950 (est.)	Dec. 31 1949
Held in the Treasury :		
Securing Silver Certificates :		
Silver Bullion ..	1,578·3	1,549·4
Silver Dollars ..	241·9	249·0
Subsidiary Coin	2·5	8·2
Free Silver Bullion	159·9	171·5
Total Treasury Holdings ..	1,982·6	1,978·1
Outside the Treasury :		
Silver Dollars ..	139·1	132·2
Subsidiary Coin	739·5	710·5
Total Silver Outside the Treasury	878·6	842·7
Total Treasury Silver	2,861·2	2,820·8

"As the largest single source of silver available to world markets, Mexico continued to play a dominant role. Acquisitions of silver from all sources by the Bank of Mexico during the year 1950 have been reported at about 32,300,000 ounces. Of this, about 20,000,000 ounces were in bullion. Total stocks from official stocks amounted to about 32,000,000 ounces during 1950. These transactions resulted in virtually no net change in the Bank's official position, which, including both bullion and coin, we estimate at about 42,000,000 ounces as at December 31, 1950.

It is, of course, impossible to determine the amount of silver which Mexico will use in coinage during the coming year. However, it has been reported that the capacity of the Mexican Mint would permit the consumption of 36,000,000 ounces in these programmes by the end of 1951. We understand further that certain arrangements with foreign governments may involve the sale of approximately another 9,000,000 ounces of silver. It would, therefore, appear that silver from official stocks will not be available in any important quantity to United States consumers during the coming months.

"Throughout the year 1950 the London market continued to operate under substantially the same degree of control that had been in effect since the war. The published rate, at which consumers in England were supplied from official stocks, followed closely the New York market. Quotations ranged from a low of 63d on March 31st to a height of 70d on October 25th. Prices in the so-called free exportable market were generally at a premium of about 1d during the early weeks of the year. This premium gradually narrowed until in June the free price stood at par with the official price, then 63½d. As demand increased during the summer and early fall a premium was soon re-established and prices as high as 74d were reported during the latter part of the year, representing a premium of 4d over the official rate.

"Government trade sources report total imports for the eleven months ended November 30th, 1950, at about 9,700,000 ounces. Australia was the principal source, supplying about 5,400,000 ounces, and Hong Kong was next in importance with 1,800,000 ounces. The balance of 2,500,000 ounces was obtained from various countries in Europe, Africa and the near east. Not included in government trade figures were imports of foreign coin amounting to about 5,500,000 ounces. Total imports for the eleven months' period, therefore, amounted to about 15,200,000 ounces. Total exports from the United Kingdom during the first eleven months of 1950, according to government trade figures, amounted to 20,300,000 ounces, indicating that some exportable metal must have been carried over from previous years.

"Consumption of silver internally in Great Britain for essential uses during 1950 has been estimated at about 11,000,000 ounces. In addition, about 1,200,000 ounces were obtained from official stocks for export in semi-fabricated form under the "float scheme". Of this total of about 12,200,000 ounces, which represents business done at the official rate, all except approximately 300,000 ounces were released from government stocks by the Bank of England. These stocks are augmented through the refining of demonetized silver coinage, and we have been advised that approximately 22,000,000 ounces were obtained during 1950 in this manner.

Consumption.—"In the absence of any demand from the Far East during the year just closed, foreign coinage orders were sharply reduced from 1949. We have knowledge of only 9,146,000 ounces consumed in such orders compared with an estimated total of more than 56,000,000 ounces used in 1949. In addition to the 3,778,000 ounces used by Mexico for its own coinage requirement, Syria purchased 1,535,000 ounces which were minted in Mexico, and it is estimated that the Royal Canadian Mint consumed 3,833,000 ounces for coinage during 1950. In addition reports from London state that, while no definite information is available, some part of the shipments from Great Britain to Sweden may have been for coinage, and also that Belgium may have used some part of the Congo's production for this purpose.

"Coinage in the United States consumed 18,985,965 fine ounces of silver during the first eleven months of 1950. This compares with 13,491,527 ounces used for the full year 1949. Once again operations were restricted to the minting of half-dollars, quarters and dimes. No silver dollars were coined.

"We estimate that consumption of silver by the arts and industries in the United States during the year just ended amounted to 120,000,000 ounces. This represents the highest rate reached since World War II, and is one-third greater than the amount used in 1949. The previous peace-time high, established during 1948, was 10,000,000 ounces below the 1950 figure. Because of the large increase in consumer demand after the outbreak of hostilities in Korea, probably about 60 per cent. of the 120,000,000 ounce total was accounted for during the second half of the year. While the increase was general with all products, the major portion resulted from the expansion in silver ware production.

"Industrial consumption of silver in other countries also increased during 1950, although not so sharply. In England about 12,200,000 ounces were allocated to authorised manufacturing uses, a slight increase over 1949; in Canada consumption remained unchanged at 5,200,000 ounces for the year according to our information, but this still represents the highest rate since 1946; Mexico we estimate at 2,500,000 ounces, an increase of 1,000,000 ounces over the previous year; and for Western Germany it has been reported that 9,600,000 ounces were consumed industrially during 1950. In addition we know that other European countries purchased silver during the year for manufacturing purposes, but we are unable to estimate the quantity.

"Events of the past year have brought about a basic change in the factors affecting silver. From 1946 to 1950 the situation generally was one of over-supply. Since the middle of 1950, with the non-Communist world and especially the United States apparently committed to a long term defence economy, there has been a growing demand for the use of silver not only in present lines but also as a substitute for those metals already under government allocation. The indications are that this demand will continue to expand.

"The statistics which we have presented place world production of foreign silver at about 115,000,000 ounces. There are undoubtedly sizable other supplies in existence, but those which are presently known to be available for sale are limited. On the other hand, total industrial consumption in those countries from which we have reports, without regard for coinage requirements, amounted to nearly 150,000,000 ounces during 1950. Total world consumption was undoubtedly somewhat higher. It is apparent, therefore, that unless offerings from non-producer sources over the coming year are greater than during 1950, any expansion in demand can only be satisfied out of United States production, currently being sold to the Treasury at 90½ cents per fine ounce."

GOLD

Gold has played a key role in shaping the life and history of the world. Between 1493 and 1600, world's production of gold was placed at 24·2 million ounces. It steadily rose to 38 million ounces during the 50 years ended 1850. Since then, however, the production has risen rather spectacularly. The annual average output mounted from 3·5 million ounces in 1850 to 19·6 million ounces in 1929 and then to 35·2 million ounces in 1936, reaching the peak figure of 41 million ounces in 1940. The greatest part of this enormous increase came since the U. S. Administration raised its price of Gold from $ 20·67 per ounce to $ 35 an ounce which made the U. S. A. a sort of magnet strongly attracting the world's entire gold production. Details of Russian output since 1940 are not available; but it is believed to be considerable. During the war production received a set-back owing to the diversion of manpower and equipment from gold mines to war requirements, but the downward trend started in 1941 was reversed in 1946. The following table gives the figures for world gold production in thousands of fine ounces.

World Gold Production
(In thousands of fine ounces)

	1944	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950
Union of South Africa ..	12,280	12,225	11,927	11,200	11,585	11,705	11,663
Canada	2,923	2,697	2,828	3,070	3,530	4,113	4,400*
U.S.A.	1,022	915	1,462	2,165	2,025	1,996	2,400*
U.S.S.R.	2,000*	2,000*	2,000*	2,000*	2,000*	2,000*	2,000*
Australia	657	657	824	938	891	893	850*
Gold Coast	523	539	586	558	672	677	680*
Southern Rhodesia	593	568	545	523	514	528	510
Mexico	509	499	421	465	368	405	400*
Colombia	554	507	437	383	335	359	406
Congo	364	347	331	301	300	334	350*
Philippines	—	13	1	64	209	289	300*
Korea	657	96	193	329	300*	300*	200*
Chile	204	180	231	169	164	179	200*
India	188	168	132	172	180	161	189
Brazil	178	212	175	167	157	180*	180*
Japan	168	65	43	58	70	100*	120*
Peru	175	173	158	116	111	112	110*
Fiji	40	95	82	94	93	90*	90*
New Zealand	142	128	119	112	94	85	85*
New Guinea	—	—	1	59	87	93	75*
Sweden	112	86	91	76	75*	75*	75*
Tanganyika	55	49	50	47	58	69	65*
Elsewhere	961	882	867	800	815	757	652*
World Total	24,305	23,101	23,504	23,866	24,633*	25,500*	26,000*
Commonwealth	17,508	17,229	17,196	16,863	17,785	18,496	18,700*
Commonwealth percentage ..	72·0	74·6	73·2	70·7	72·2	72·5	71·9
U. of S. Africa percentage ..	50·5	52·9	50·7	46·9	47·0	45·9	44·9

* Estimated or provisional figure.

According to the Union Corporation Ltd., world output of gold during 1950 was about 26 million fine ounces as against 25.5 million ounces in the preceding year. This represents a fresh higher level for the post-war year. The increase was due to the higher output in Canada and the United States which had more than offset the fall in other countries. The share of the British Commonwealth on the world output, which had risen from 70.7 per cent. in 1947 to 72.5 per cent. in 1949, declined to 71.9 per cent. in the year under review.

Throughout the year 1950 the Bank of England's gold buying prices remained at 248s. per fine ounce and 58s. per sovereign, the level to which they were raised on the devaluation of the pound sterling in September 1949. Under the Gold Export Float Scheme, the Bank supplied its authorised dealers at the rate of 252s. per fine ounce with the limited amounts of gold licensed for export in semi-processed or fully manufactured forms. The Bank continued to maintain the ban on dealings in bar gold or coin at any premium over the official prices; but the dealers continued to provide the traditional depot facilities for foreign owned gold.

To permit its gold producers to obtain part of premium prices, South Africa decided early in 1949 to allow an export of 100,000 ounces of gold at a price of $38.20 per ounce. Thereafter an agreement was reached between South Africa and the International Monetary Fund whereby the former was allowed to sell 40 per cent. of its output in the free market subject to certain conditions. Throughout the year the pressure for raising the gold price was intense and since the Fund as well as the United States resisted it, supplies to the world free markets were diverted by circumventing the Fund's rulings. Owing to the unsettled international situation, the free gold markets were active and the price was fairly well held above $41 despite a larger flow of supplies. The undertone was, however, firm and the highest rate touched was at $44 in the first quarter of 1951. The official price fixed by the U. S. Treasury on February 1, 1934 at $35, however, remained unchanged.

MONETARY STOCKS OF GOLD

The table below shows the changes in monetary stocks of gold with the Central Banks and Governments of certain countries. The payments difficulties of the post-war period caused a continuous and serious depletion of the monetary reserves of many countries and a continuous rise in those of the United States. Following the devaluation of the pound sterling, the trend was reversed in the case of the sterling area of which the United Kingdom is the banker and the process became general in the latter half of 1950 following the heavy American demand for raw materials for stockpiling and the rearmament drive.

Value of Monetary Stocks of Gold in Certain Countries

(In million ounces)

	End Of							
	1913	1929	1939	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950
United States ..	1,290	3,900	17,644	20,706	22,868	24,398	24,570	22,820
United Kingdom ..	165	710	2,038	2,588	2,036	1,829	1,680	3,290
France	679	1,633	2,709	796	548	548	525	525
Switzerland.. ..	33	115	549	1,430	1,356	1,387	1,505	1,470
India	124	128	274	274	274	256*	245	245
South Africa ..	34	37	245	939	762	183	140	210
Belgium	48	163	731	735	594	624	700	595
Brazil	90	150	40	354	354	317	315	315
Netherlands ..	61	181	689	265	232	167	210	315
Sweden	27	66	308	381	105	81	70	105
Turkey	..	..	29	237	170	162	140	140
Canada	..	..	..	..	..	..	490	595

* Figures for 1948 and subsequent years are for Indian Union only.

India's Trade in Gold and Silver

	GOLD						SILVER					
	Imports		Exports		Net Imports (+) Net Exports (—)		Imports		Exports		Net Imports (+) Net Exports (—)	
	Ounces	Rs. in lakhs	Ounces	Rs. in lakhs	Ounces	Rs. in lakhs	Ounces	Rs. in lakhs	Ounces	Rs. in lakhs	Ounces	Rs. in lakhs
Average for 1900-01 to 1904-05 ..	2,496,571	15,07	1,520,365	8,83	+ 976,206	+6,23	81,897,274	14,65	24,847,996	4,53	+57,049,278	+10,11
Average for 1905-06 to 1909-10 ..	2,845,107	17,50	1,000,328	5,75	+1,844,779	+11,75	96,327,973	17,76	9,290,601	2,31	+87,037,372	+15,45
Average for 1910-11 to 1914-15 ..	4,902,022	29,92	790,634	4,58	+4,111,388	+24,34	78,167,324	14,14	17,156,023	3,52	+61,011,301	+10,61
Average for 1915-16 to 1919-20 ..	3,220,868	19,65	1,075,034	6,23	+2,145,834	+13,41	117,681,324	30,71	10,955,709	2,74	+106,725,615	+27,96
Average for 1920-21 to 1924-25 ..	5,528,699	36,45	1,008,892	7,74	+4,519,807	+28,71	88,745,101	19,20	15,136,478	3,46	+73,608,623	+15,74
Average for 1925-26 to 1929-30 ..	3,821,276	21,66	18,901	11	+3,802,375	+21,55	110,236,394	17,50	22,882,522	3,65	+87,353,872	+13,84
Average for 1930-31 to 1934-35 ..	633,397	3,84	5,859,530	47,90	—5,226,133	—44,07	37,308,897	4,96	46,660,021	5,78	— 9,351,124	— 82
Average for 1935-36 to 1947-48 ..	116,078	2,11	1,191,836	11,89	—1,215,709	—11,18	44,707,532	806	15,199,366	2,72	+29,508,166	+ 5,34
1948-49 ..	345	1	405	1	— 60	— 0·07	1,820,195	84	122	..	+ 1,820,073	+ 84
1949-50 ..	716	2	0·3	..	+ 716	+ 2	149,021	6	79,370	4	+ 69,651	+ 2

Note.—Figures upto 1941-42 include Burma and upto 1947-48 are on a pre-partition basis.

INDIAN MARKET

Though India happened to be an important consumer of the world's production of silver and gold, the bullion markets were not on an organised basis nor had the merchants any direct contact with London until 1905. The Exchange Banks in prominent cities used to negotiate all the deals before 1901 when a prominent choksey in Bombay opened his London office. In 1913-14 an Association of Silver Merchants was formed for the first time in Bombay and rules were framed for the settlement of accounts. Forward trading in gold was started in 1915 when for the first time gold was directly imported by a merchant from the U. S. In January 1923, the Bombay Bullion Exchange, Ltd. was floated with a view to putting forward trading on an organised basis. 13 years later the Exchange established a clearing house to facilitate the settlement of forward accounts. Till the outbreak of the Second World War, the market worked smoothly; but thereafter there were frequent suspensions, defaults and intervention by the High Court.

Towards the beginning of 1948, the Government of Bombay felt the need for reorganising the trade on a sound basis. With that end in view, a new Association called the Bombay Bullion Association was formed in September 1948 to replace the three existing institutions providing facilities for trading in bullion in Bombay city, viz., the Bombay Bullion Exchange, the Marwadi Chamber of Commerce and the (Silver) Tukada Bazaar. The Government of Bombay extended the provisions of their Bombay Forward Contracts Control Act 1947 to the bullion trade on December 10, 1948 and forward trading in bullion was vested solely on December 25 in the new Association to the exclusion of the rest and defined the period of ready delivery as one day as against the maximum period of seven days allowed till then. A few days later, options were made illegal. The rules approved by Government provide for the appointment of two directors on the Board of the Association on behalf of Government. Forward trading under the auspices of the new Association was inaugurated on April 2, 1949 on the basis of monthly settlement under a new contract. The Association has a membership of 560 and has a governing Board of 20.

In March 1951 the Government of India introduced in Parliament a Bill to regulate forward trading in commodities. The Bill has been referred to the Select Committee.

MARKET REVIEW

With no change in the embargo on the foreign trade in bullion the isolated Indian bullion market continued to be under the influence of economic trends. Devaluation did not have any durable effect on the already high bullion prices nor the absorption of sales of gold on behalf of the Hyderabad Government affected their course which was in the main upward because of inflationary pressures. The sales of silver in 1949-50 on account of Hyderabad amounted to 21,635 bars (23.45 milliou ounces) valued at Rs. 10.29 crores, the highest and lowest prices obtained being Rs. 176-12 and Rs. 157-12 per 100 tolas. The sales of gold amounted to 70,500 tolas (0.03 million ounces) valued at Rs. 80.78 lakhs, the highest and lowest prices obtained being Rs. 115-0 and Rs. 114-8.

Trading during 1949-50 was attended by two crisis in the market. The first crisis occurred in about a month of the inauguration of the new Association following a rise of Rs. 9 in gold and silver futures in May. The second crisis developed in mid-July when bulls failed to honour option commitments following sales of silver by the Reserve Bank. To tide it over the market had to be closed till August 15. This was followed by the addition of a new bye-law empowering the Board to levy margins.

Broadly stated, the price trends during 1949-50 passed through four phases, namely, (1) an almost continuous rise from April to mid-June which may be considered as a seasonal feature, (2) a sharp recession from mid-June to mid-July due to sales on account of Hyderabad Government, (3) a period of comparative steadiness upto mid-September because the market had to absorb sales, and (4) a resumption of the uptrend in the price of silver from about the close of September, which became pronounced during the last quarter of the financial year, gold remaining steady within comparatively narrow limits.

During 1950-51 there was considerable broadfining of the speculative activity in the market owing to the outbreak of the Korean war and the persistent fears of growing inflationary pressures. The range of fluctuations in ready gold had declined in 1949-50 from Rs. 18 to Rs. 12-8 ; but it was higher at Rs. 15-6 in the year under review. The activity was generally on the bearish side because of the steady flow of smuggled gold and the average spot for gold worked out Rs. 113-7-4 as against Rs. 114-14-11 in 1949-50.

The energy of professional bulls was concentrated on silver the spot rate for which fluctuated within a range of Rs. 24-14 as against Rs. 33-14 in 1949-50 and Rs. 24-0 in 1948-49. Nevertheless the average quotation worked out at Rs. 185-14-3 which was a fresh record. After the close of the financial year the quotation crossed Rs. 200 level and presented a firm front under the influence of seasonal buying and shortage of stocks.

The year was a period of trial for the market. It opened with a suit in the High Court challenging the validity of the margin system and the Finance Minister's statement to the effect that Government had no intention of lifting the ban on imports of gold and his hint that official sales of silver might not materialise provided the stimulant. By June conditions in the market became abnormal and the Government of Bombay superseded the elected Board on June 26, 1950 following the deadlock over the competence of the President to take legal advice on certain issues without consulting the Board. This was followed by a downward trend in the market. In the case of gold this trend became manifest in the following three months and the spot rate touched the bottom at Rs. 104-12 in November from the high level of Rs. 120-2 in May. In the case of silver the main trend remained downward with the spot rate gradually receding from Rs. 192-10 in May to Rs. 176-8 in November. The slump was attributable to the heavy smuggling of gold and apprehensions about the revaluation of the rupee. Thereafter the prices of both the metals continued to move upward on hopes of the seasonal demand being broadened, fears of inflationary pressures and the strength of the world free markets in gold. The average price for spot gold and silver in 1950-51 worked out at Rs. 113-7-4 and Rs. 185-14-3 as against Rs. 114-14-11 and Rs. 174-11-10 respectively in the preceding year.

The following statement gives the highest and lowest spot prices of gold and silver in Bombay with import duties since 1926-27 :—

	Gold (per fine tola).				Silver (per 100 tolas gross).			
Year.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	Import Duty.	Highest.	Lowest.	Average.	Import Duty.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
1926-27	21 11 6	21 4 6	21 7 8	..	72 0 0	55 8 0	63 1 5	..
1927-28	21 11 3	21 4 9	21 7 6	..	61 2 0	56 8 0	59 3 7	..
1928-29	21 11 6	21 4 6	21 6 10	..	66 6 0	58 2 0	60 9 2	..
1929-30	22 0 0	21 5 3	21 7 5	..	59 7 0	46 14 0	53 9 11	..
1930-31	21 13 3	21 3 6	21 12 6	..	57 4 0	39 0 0	46 15 1	9 6 0
1931-32	31 2 0	21 3 6	24 4 3	..	66 8 0	41 12 0	50 3 11	14 1 0
1932-33	32 1 6	26 10 0	29 5 2	..	60 0 0	48 14 0	52 11 4	14 1 0
1933-34	34 12 0	28 11 0	32 4 5	..	59 14 0	52 15 0	56 0 10	17 9 3
1934-35	36 13 3	33 3 0	35 15 8	..	69 0 0	50 7 0	60 13 5	11 11 6
1935-36	36 12 0	31 3 6	35 4 11	..	87 0 0	46 12 0	65 1 1	4 11 0
1936-37	35 8 0	33 15 3	34 12 6	..	56 2 0	47 0 0	50 5 8	4 11 0
1937-38	35 2 0	34 3 6	34 7 10	..	55 15 6	46 1 6	51 4 1	7 0 6
1938-39	37 10 6	34 12 3	35 10 3	..	53 1 6	48 2 0	51 11 3	7 0 6
1939-40	43 8 0	36 9 0	39 13 11	..	66 4 0	44 7 6	55 4 9	7 0 6
1940-41	48 8 0	40 2 6	42 6 0	..	64 13 0	54 10 0	62 8 0	7 0 6
1941-42	57 12 0	41 9 6	44 7 11	..	97 6 0	61 12 6	66 11 4	8 7 0
1942-43	72 0 0	44 12 0	57 10 10	..	116 8 0	75 4 0	94 2 6	8 7 0
1943-44	96 4 0	65 4 0	76 11 6	..	141 8 0	101 8 6	120 7 11	8 7 0
1944-45	76 12 0	61 2 0	71 7 4	..	143 4 0	113 10 0	128 10 9	8 7 0
1945-46	97 12 0	63 6 0	80 3 0	25 0 0	159 6 0	118 0 0	135 1 11	8 7 0
1946-47	111 0 0	84 4 0	101 1 2	25 0 0 12 8 0	195 0 0	127 0 0	162 4 10	18 12 0 18 12 0
1947-48	117 12 0	95 14 0	108 0 4		183 8 0	142 8 0	166 12 6	9 6 0
1948-49	121 0 0	103 0 0	114 9 10		190 8 0	166 8 0	177 9 0	
1949-50	119 10 0	107 2 0	114 14 11	12 8 0	192 12 0	158 14 0	174 11 10	9 6 0
1950-51	120 2 0	104 12 0	113 7 4		198 12 0	173 14 0	185 14 3	

FINANCE

THE war meant a change to Indian finance. To understand the implications of the change it may be noted, that (a) the aggregate war expenditure in India, including recoverable war expenditure during the period 1939-40 to 1945-46 came to Rs. 3,484 crores, India's share being Rs. 1,744 crores or about 50 per cent. and (b) that the over-all Governmental India's public revenue, expenditure and debt outlay (war and civil expenditure) amounted to Rs. 3,996 crores of which Rs. 1,462 crores or 37 per cent. was met out of revenue, the balance being partly reflected in the accumulation of sterling balances and partly in the addition to India's public debt which increased by Rs. 1,077 crores. The following table gives an idea of the change brought about by the war in between 1938-39 and 1945-46 :—

(Rs. in Crores)

	1938–39	1944–45	1945–46
I—Central Government Budget :			
Revenue	84·52	335·57	360·67
Expenditure	85·15	496·71	484·57
Deficit	—0·63	—161·14	—123·90
II—Total Governmental Outlay	85·15	970·38	894·20
A. On India's Account :			
(*i*) Civil Expenditure	38·97	101·22	124·34
(*ii*) Defence Expenditure	46·18	458·32	395·32
B. Recoverable War Expenditure ..	—	410·84	374·54
III—Central Government Debt at the end of year—			
(*i*) Sterling Loans	464·94	34·19	33·84
(*ii*) Rupee Loans	437·87	1,212·14	1,492·20
(*iii*) Small Savings	141·45	159·18	221·52
(*iv*) Treasury Bills and Ways and Means Advances	46·30	86·70	83·33
(*v*) Total Interesting Bearing Advances.	1,205·76	1,860·44	2,282·38

General Rise

Total revenue, both tax and non-tax, increased during this period rapidly. Customs receipts in contrast began to shrink owing partly to transport difficulties as the war reached its climax. From being the main source of revenue in 1938-39, at Rs. 40.51 crores, it dwindled to Rs. 25.12 crores in 1942-43, although it recovered to Rs. 39.76 crores by 1944-45. Central excise duties expanded during war years to a remarkable extent reflecting the increased purchasing power in the hands of the public. This expansion was secured not only by enhancing the rate on existing items but also by adding new items such as tobacco, vegetable products, betel-nuts, coffee and tea.

The largest expansion in yield was, however, from direct taxation under corporation, income and excess profits taxes. These three taxes contributed from 20.2 per cent. in 1940-41 to 49.1 per cent. in 1944-45. From 1942-43 to 1945-46 one half to three fifths of the total revenue came from these taxes. Total tax revenue increased from Rs. 72.34 crores in 1938-39 to the peak figure of Rs. 282.67 crores in the revised estimates for 1945-46. Non-tax revenue also spurted up, specially after 1940-41, owing mainly to increased contributions from Railways and Post and Telegraphs and the larger profits of the Reserve Bank of India.

The expenditure under Defence mounted up steadily, especially after 1941-42, *i.e.*, after the entry of Japan into the war. From Rs. 49.54 crores in 1939-40 it rose to the peak figure of Rs. 458.32 crores in 1944-45, the last full year of the war. The charges for the servicing of debt more than doubled from Rs. 14.12 crores in 1938-39 to Rs. 22.21 crores in 1944-45 and Rs. 33.85 crores in the revised estimates for 1945-46 and this might have been larger still but for decreases in the effective rates of interest.

Deficits on revenue account grew in size from Rs. 6.53 crores in 1940-41 to Rs. 12.69 crores in 1941-42 and Rs. 112.17 crores in 1942-43 reaching the peak figure of Rs. 189.78 crores in 1943-44. With the deficit of Rs. 161.14 crores during 1944-45 and Rs. 144.95 crores in the following year, the total volume of deficits during the period 1940-41 to 1945-46 came to Rs. 627.26 crores.

POST-WAR PERIOD

The year 1946-47 may be regarded practically as the first post-war year which had to face the possible effects on the country's economy of a steep fall in war-time expenditure and income levels and the legacy of war-time inflation. The Finance Minister announced a substantial tax relief of which details are given below and envisaged a deficit of Rs. 44·06 crores after taking into account the war risks insurance funds amounting to Rs. 26·10 crores and tax reliefs. The revenue was placed at Rs. 311·65 crores and expenditure at Rs. 355·71 crores.

The tax relief included the abolition of E.P.T. after March 31, 1946, a special initial depreciation allowance of 10 per cent. on new buildings and of 20 per cent. on new plant and machinery, allowances for income-tax in regard to expenditure on research, the relief from import duties on raw materials and a reduction in duty on plant, a net reduction of as. 1¾ in company taxation and an exemption from income-tax for two years in the case of residential buildings and an initial depreciation allowance of 15 per cent. for business premises. The ceiling of tax on life offices was lowered by three pies to as. 5. Concessions were also granted in respect of taxation on personal incomes.

Under indirect taxation, the duty on kerosene oil was proposed to be reduced by nine pies from as. 4½ to as. 3¾ per imperial gallon and on motor spirit from as. 15 to as. 12. Later, further concessions were granted by reducing the duty on kerosene to as. 3, a reduction in excise duty from as. 2 to anna one and of as.½ in the customs duty on betel-nuts from the proposed level, and a reduction in the unexposed cinematograph film from 6 pies per linear foot as originally proposed to 3 pies, in the price of a match box from 9 pies to 6 pies and in the price of a post card from 9 pies to 6 pies.

The policy of providing economic incentives to meet the post-war problems gave way to that aimed at social objectives in framing the budget for 1947-48. With that end, relief was given to lower income groups, business profits tax was introduced at 16⅔ per cent. on profits above Rs. one lakh, a graduated tax on capital gains exceeding Rs. 5,000 was levied, the rate of corporation tax was doubled and a steep increase was made in taxation of unearned incomes.

Following the political division of the country on August 15, 1947, the budget for the period August 15, 1947 to March 31, 1948 was presented on the basis of the then existing taxation. The budget for 1948-49 was framed with the object of providing incentives once again. It reduced the business profits tax from 16⅔ per cent. to 10 per cent., lowered the tax on undistributed profits of companies from as. 5 to as. 4, increased the limit of income for maximum taxation and gave special relief to small companies. Against this, the corporation tax was raised from two to three annas. Certain excise and customs duties were also raised.

Introducing the budget for 1949-50, the Finance Minister stated that the problem was one of raising additional revenue to cover the budget deficit and of considering adjustments in taxation in the light of experience. The twin objects were to check inflation and to allay the fears of business men and investors. With these ends in view, the relief in taxation took the form of abolition of the capital gains tax, reduction of the tax on incomes upto Rs. 10,000 by three ples, reduction in super-tax, rebate of half of the corporation tax to public companies with an income of Rs. 25,000, rebate of half the duty on aviation spirit, and abolition of the duty on exports of oilseeds and vegetable oils. On the other hand, indirect taxation

was raised. The latter included a rise in postal rates, surcharges on import duties of a large variety of goods, a new duty of 15 per cent. on exports of cigarettes, cigars, etc. and an increase in the excise duty on sugar from Rs. 3 to Rs. 3-12 per cwt. and on tyres from 15 per cent. to 30 per cent. and the continuation of excise duties on mill cloth.

The additional taxation was expected to yield Rs. 20·59 crores, while the relief was to the extent of Rs. 5·35 crores. Minor changes were made in the taxation proposals by the Legislature and the budget for 1949-50, as passed by the Legislature, placed the revenue at Rs. 323·02 crores and expenditure at Rs. 322·53 crores. The defence expenditure on revenue account was estimated at Rs. 157·37 crores.

REPUBLICAN FINANCE

The Constitution of India declaring India a Sovereign Republic was made effective from January 26, 1950. It provides that the annual financial statement to be submitted to Parliament will show separately (1) expenditure charged upon the Consolidated Fund of India and (2) other expenditure proposed to be made from the same Fund and will distinguish expenditure on revenue account from other expenditure. All revenues received by the Government of India and all loans raised by that Government and all moneys received in payment of loans will constitute the Consolidated Fund of India. All other public moneys received shall be credited to the public account. Parliament may establish a Contingency Fund which will be at the disposal of the President for making advances for meeting unforeseen expenditure pending its authorisation by Parliament.

The financial provisions in the Constitution divide the field of taxation between the Union and States. The Union List covers (1) taxes on income other than agricultural income, (2) customs duties, (3) duties of excise on tobacco and other goods produced in India except alcoholic liquors, opium, Indian hemp and other narcotic drugs and narcotics but including medicinal and toilet preparations containing alcohol, (4) corporation tax, (5) taxes on the capital value of the assets, exclusive of agricultural land, of individuals and companies and on the capital of companies, (6) estate duty on property other than agricultural land, (7) duties in respect of succession to property other than agricultural land, (8) terminal taxes, (9) taxes other than stamp duties on transactions on stock exchanges and futures markets, (10) rates of stamp duty on bills of exchange, cheques, pronotes, bills of lading, letters of credit, insurance policies, transfer of shares, debentures, proxies and receipts, and (11) taxes on the sale or purchase of newspapers and on advertisements published therein.

The financial provisions of the Constitution of India closely follow the Government of India Act, 1935. It enumerates in three separate lists the Union, State and Concurrent subjects of legislation. Residuary powers of legislation vest in the Union Parliament. The items in the respective lists are broadly the same as under the Government of India Act, 1935. There are some changes in the division of tax resources between the Union and the States. Article 286 of the Constitution restricts the powers of the States in regard to sales tax with a view to ensuring uniformity in the principles governing the tax which, however, will be levied and administered by the States. A State Government cannot impose a tax on the sale or purchase of goods outside the State or if it concerns India's foreign trade or inter-State trade or if the goods in question are declared by Parliament to be essential to the life of the community. Taxation on the sale or purchase of newspapers and of advertisements published in them is included among taxes levied and collected by the Union but the proceeds will be assigned to the States. No changes are made in the sharing of income-tax proceeds. A prescribed percentage of the net proceeds from taxes on income other than agricultural income (exclusive of the corporation tax, taxes payable in respect of Union emoluments and proceeds attributable to Part C States) shall be assigned to the States in which they are levied. The limit of the total amount of the tax on professions, trades, callings and employments payable by any one person to a State or to a local authority is raised from Rs. 50 to Rs. 250 per annum. The provision that, if Parliament by law so provides, the whole or any part of the net proceeds of an excise duty levied and collected by the Union may be paid over to the States, is retained. The Union retains the power to levy surcharges on certain taxes for purposes of the Union.

The jute-growing States are no longer entitled to a specified share of the net proceeds of the export duty on jute or jute products. Under Article 273 of the Constitution, the jute duty is assigned wholly to the Centre; the States of West Bengal, Assam, Bihar and Orissa will receive, however, grants-in-aid, so long as the jute export duty is levied or for a period of 10 years, whichever is earlier. As under Section 142 of the Government of India Act, 1935, Article 275 of the Constitution of India provides for general grants-in-aid to such States as Parliament may determine to be in need of assistance; the amount of the aid may vary as between States and from year to year. The Article provides for grants-in-aid to States in respect of approved schemes of development for promoting the welfare of Scheduled Tribes or for raising the level of administration of the Scheduled Areas and for grants-in-aid to Assam of sums equivalent to (1) the average excess of expenditure over revenues during the two years immediately preceding the commencement of the Constitution in respect of the administration of (specified) tribal areas, and (2) the costs of such schemes of development as may be undertaken by that State, with the approval of the Government of India, for raising the level of administration of the said areas to that of the administration of the rest of the areas of the State.

The provisions relating to borrowing remain unaltered. The executive power of the Union extends to borrowing upon the security of the Consolidated Fund of India within such limits, if any, as may be fixed by Parliament and the giving of guarantees within such limits as may be fixed. A State can borrow within the territory of India on the security of the Consolidated Fund of the State. The Government of India may make loans to any State or give guarantees in respect of loans raised by a State. Prior consent of the Government of India is necessary for a State to raise a loan, if there is still outstanding any part of a loan made to it by the Government of India or in respect of which a guarantee has been given by the Government of India. In giving such consent, the Government of India may impose any conditions they may deem necessary.

A Finance Commission is required to be set up within two years from the commencement of the Constitution and, thereafter, at the expiration of every fifth year, or at such earlier time as the President may consider necessary (Article 280), to make recommendations *inter alia* as to (1) the distribution between the Union and the States of the net proceeds of taxes which are to be, or may be, divided between them and the allocation among the States of the respective shares of such proceeds, (2) the principles which should govern grants-in-aid to the States out of the Consolidated Fund of India and (3) the continuance or modification of the terms of any Agreement entered into by the Government of India with the Government of any Part B State.

INDIAN STATES' FINANCE

Prior to August 15, 1947, Provinces and States developed on different lines, though geographically India was one. With the attainment of independence by India, almost all States, with the exception of Hyderabad, Kashmir and Junagadh "acceded" to the Dominion in the three subjects of defence, external affairs and communications and also executed "standstill" agreements which maintained the existing "codes" in regard to most matters of common concern. The entry of the States into a defined "constitutional" relationship with the Central Government was followed by the formation of the States into the Unions approximating in size and resources to Provinces. This necessarily meant recognition of the principle of uniform sources of federal revenues and equality of the basis of contribution to federal finances and paved the way for the financial integration of the States with the Indian Union.

The Government of India appointed on October 22, 1948 a Committee of experts to inquire into the finances of Indian States and Unions of States with a view to facilitating their financial integration. The Committee was composed of Sir V. T. Krishnamachari, Chairman, Mr. S. K. Patil and Mr. N. Dandekar. The summary of its recommendations, which have been accepted by Government with a few modifications, is given below :—

(1) Income-tax should be imposed in all States. In States where there is no income-tax it should be imposed from April 1, 1950 or the date from which federal financial integration becomes effective at rates not lower than the pre-existing rates of the Saurashtra Union.

(2) A certain measure of gradualness in reaching the Indian level of rates of income-tax is necessary. The whole process requires a period of three to six years only, depending upon the level of pre-existing rates.

(3) Capital gains tax should not be levied in respect of capital gains accruing prior to federal financial integration.

(4) The commencing date of the first "chargeable" period for purposes of business profits tax should be the date of federal financial integration.

The White Paper on the Budget for 1950-51 elucidated the position further. It said: "The scheme of integration, which will take effect from April 1, 1950, places the States and Unions in the same position as the Indian provinces vis-a-vis the Centre. The present composite Governments of these States will be divided on a functional basis and the Centre will take over the Central subjects and services from these States with the related assets and liabilities. But since some of these States were financing what would be provincial services from the surplus of their revenue from Central subjects, some form of financial assistance to them to meet the dislocation caused by the lifting of federal revenue and expenditure from their budgets is obviously necessary. The Centre has agreed to make good (with certain adjustments) to the States the difference between the actual federal revenue lost to them and the federal expenditure saved to them as a result of federal financial integration. This reimbursement will be made in full for the first five years and on a diminishing scale for the next five years.

The States will be in the same position as provinces in the matter of sharing divisible sources of revenue like income-tax but any grant made to them to cover the federal revenue gap will be set off against this share. States which are left with a surplus as a result of the integration will retain the surplus but the Privy Purses of the former Rulers of these States will be recovered from them to the extent of this surplus. They will, in addition, get their appropriate share of divisible heads of Central revenue. It will be some time before the "revenue gap" of these States can be determined but on the basis of the information available it appears that assistance will be necessary to Hyderabad, Travancore-Cochin, Mysore and Saurashtra while Madhya Bharat, Patiala and East Punjab States Union and Rajasthan will not require assistance from the Centre.

GENERAL STATEMENT OF REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE

(In lakhs of rupees)

	1949-50 Accounts	1950-51 Budget	1950-51 Revised	1951-52 Budget*
REVENUE—				
Customs	1,24,71	1,06,54	1,45,31	1,50,04
Union Excise Duties	67,85	71,50	69,68	84,78
Corporation Tax	39,53	38,10	38,92	32,73
Taxes on Income other than Corporation Tax	1,21,59	1,28,68	1,27,88	1,32,57
Opium	1,24	1,55	3,00	2,35
Interest	1,36	1,14	1,79	1,67
Civil Administration	7,91	7,87	10,46	8,42
Currency and Mint	11,22	9,52	12,87	12,32
Civil Works	1,64	1,27	1,46	1,52
Pre-partition Receipts	1,33	..	..	..
Other Sources of Revenue	8,36	9,79	13,69	12,91
Posts and Telegraphs :—Net Contribution to General Revenues	2,38	4,04	3,07	2,00
Railways :—Net Contribution to General Revenues	7,00	6,37	6,76	7,26
DEDUCT—Share of Income-Tax Revenue payable to States	—45,74	—47,78	—47,68	—47,53
Total ..	3,50,38	3,38,59	3,87,21	4,01,04
EXPENDITURE—				
Direct Demands on the Revenue	17,35	17,30	17,55	19,35
Debt Services	39,43	36,50	36,46	37,32
Defence	1,48,86	1,68,01	1,79,47	1,80,02
Extraordinary Payments	11,54	3,44	6,21	13,72
Forest Expenditure	91	1,26	1,43	1,41
Civil Administration	39,30	50,05	52,75	56,03
Civil Works	4,33	7,07	7,96	9,95
Miscellaneous	52,46	38,70	61,58	42,03
Grants-in-aid, Subvention to States, etc. ..	2,96	15,41	15,72	15,43
Total ..	3,17,14	3,37,88	3,79,28	3,75,43
Surplus	+ 33,24	+ 71	+ 7,93	+ 25,61
	3,50,38	3,38,59	3,87,21	4,01,04

* The estimates take into account the effect of budget proposals which are expected to realise Rs. 31,15 lakhs composed of Rs. 8,75 lakhs from Customs, Rs. 13,15 lakhs from Union Excise Duties, Rs. 2,25 lakhs from Corporation Tax, Rs. 6,00 lakhs from Taxes on Income other than Corporation Tax and Rs. 1,00 lakhs from other sources of income.

1950-51 Budget :—The first budget of the Republic of India was presented by Dr. John Matthai on February 28, 1950 and since it covered the whole of the Indian Union, the figures with the previous years are not comparable.

The taxation changes proposed were : (*a*) concessional rates in respect of local postal deliveries, (*b*) reduction in the basic minimum charge for an ordinary telegram by an anna to as. 8 and for express telegrams by as. 2 to one rupee, (*c*) reduction in the maximum trunk call rate from Rs. 16 to Rs. 12, (*d*) abolition of the business profits tax, (*e*) reduction in the maximum rate of income-tax from as. 5 to as. 4 and from as. 3½ to as. 3 for the slab of Rs. 10,000 to Rs. 15,000, (*f*) raising the exemption limit for undivided family from Rs.5 ,000 to Rs. 6,000, (*g*) an increase of half an anna in corporation tax, (*h*) abolition of distinction between earned and unearned incomes, and (*i*) reduction in the maximum super tax rate from as. 9 to as. 8½ to be applied to income above Rs. 1½ lakhs and an increase of roughly one anna in rates on earned incomes below that level.

The total relief in direct taxation was of Rs. 14·99 crores of which the Centre would bear Rs. 7·87 crores. This, together with the relief in indirect taxation, brought the total relief on the Centre's account to Rs. 8·31 crores.

The Dividend Limitation Act was abolished.

On the recommendations of the Select Committee, Parliament made the following changes in the Finance Bill which was finally passed into law :—

(1) The exemption limit for the levy of income-tax raised from Rs. 3,000 to Rs. 3,600 in the case of individuals, unregistered firms and associations, and from Rs. 6,000 to Rs. 7,200 in the case of Hindu undivided families.

(2) In the case of match factories producing less than 100 gross boxes per day, the excise duty reduced from Rs. 2-14 to Rs. 2-13 per gross boxes of 60's and from Rs. 1-15 to Rs. 1-14 per gross boxes of 40's. In the case of the middling factories, the reduction is from Rs. 2-15 to Rs. 2-14-6 and from Rs. 1-15-6 to Rs. 1-15 respectively.

As approved by Parliament, the total revenue and expenditure for 1950-51 was placed at Rs. 338·59 crores and Rs. 337·88 crores respectively, leaving a nominal surplus of Rs. 71 lakhs.

THE 1951-52 BUDGET

Presenting the budget for 1951-52, the Finance Minister, Mr. C. D. Deshmukh said that at the existing level of taxation, the total revenue would amount to Rs. 369·89 crores and expenditure at Rs. 375·43 crores leaving a deficit of Rs. 5·54 crores. The expenditure included grants to States for financing their development and grow more food schemes which were hitherto charged to capital and also certain items of defence expenditure at present debited to capital account.

To meet the deficit and to augment Government's ways and means position, he proposed the following additional taxation designed to yield Rs. 31·15 crores :—

(A) Direct : An increase of a quarter of an anna in the corporation tax to yield Rs. 2·25 crores. Levy of a surcharge of five per cent., exclusively for the benefit of the Centre, on all income-tax and super-tax rates, excluding corporation tax, to realise Rs. 6 crores. Reduction in the rebate of super-tax on the profits of life offices going into the dividends from two annas to 1½ annas. Its effect on the revenue will be negligible and has not been taken into account.

(B) Indirect : An increase of five per cent. in the duties on all items in the import schedule except such of them as are governed by specific agreements. The yield from this surcharge is estimated at Rs. 2 crores. An increase by 50 per cent. to 150 per cent. in the surcharge on ale, beer, spirits and other fermented liquor to realise Rs. 40 lakhs. Rationalisation of import duties on mineral oils other than motor spirit and kerosene so that the existing duties are raised to a maximum of 20 per cent. *ad valorem*. These are estimated to realise an additional sum of Rs. 60 lakhs. Levy of an export duty of Rs. 80 per ton on groundnut kernel and of 10 per cent. *ad valorem* on coarse and medium cloth excluding furnishing fabrics and manufactures like hosiery, etc. to yield Rs. 1½ crores and Rs. 2½ crores respectively. Readjustments in the application of concessional assessments to the existing export duties on cotton waste and pepper yielding Rs. 1·75 crores. A five per cent. increase in the excise duty on motor spirit and kerosene to realise Rs. 15 lakhs. Rationalisation of excise duties on tobacco to yield Rs. 13 crores. Introduction of sales tax in Delhi to realise Rs. 1 crore.

Ways and Means : The current year's budget included Rs. 75 crores from market borrowings and Rs. 28 crores from small savings. In addition, credit was taken for a sale of Rs. 10 crores from securities held in the investment account. In addition to Rs. 7½ crores cash subscriptions and conversions amounting to Rs. 22¾ crores on account of the cash-cum-conversion loan, sales of securities realised Rs. 23 crores while the net receipts from small savings are now placed at Rs. 31 crores. The total borrowings have, therefore, fallen below the estimate by Rs. 29 crores.

For next year credit has been taken for Rs. 100 crores for new loans and Rs. 43 crores from small savings and provision has been made for repaying Rs. 87 crores being the balance of the three per cent. 1951-54 loan.

Debt Position : The outstanding public debt of the Government of India is expected to amount to Rs. 2,089 crores at the end of 1950-51 and Rs. 2,103 crores at the end of 1951-52. The broad analysis of the debt compared with the debt at the end of 1938-39 is given below :

(In lakhs of rupees)

Particulars	As on 31st March 1939	As on 31st March 1951	As on 31st March, 1952
Rupee Loans	4,84,82	20,31,01	20,43,60
Sterling Loans	4,64,95	33,00	30,54
Dollar Loans	—	24,60	28,59
TOTAL	9,49,77	20,88,61	21,02,73

The liability for the British war loan remains suspended while against the outstanding Railway annuities an equivalent deposit has been made with the U. K. Government. Omitting these items, the total outstanding debt will be Rs. 2,057 crores at the end of 1950-51 and Rs. 2,074 crores at the end of the following year representing at the end of the budget year an increase of Rs. 1,192 crores over the corresponding figure at the end of 1938-39.

In addition, Government are liable to repay certain balances estimated to amount to Rs. 689 crores at the end of the current year and Rs. 700 crores at the end of 1951-52 after making a very rough allowance for Pakistan's probable share in them. Taking the regular debt and these liabilities together the debt at Rs. 2,746 crores on March 31, 1951 and Rs. 2,774 crores on March 31, 1952 would represent an increase of Rs. 1,612 crores and Rs. 1,640 crores respectively over March 31, 1939.

The following table gives details of interest-bearing obligations and interest-yielding assets of the Government of India over a period :—

(In lakhs of rupees)

	1947-48	1950-51 Revised	1951-52 Budget
INTEREST-BEARING OBLIGATIONS			
In India :			
Loans	15,17,09	14,38,46	14,51,73
Treasury Bills, Ways and Means Advances and Treasury Deposit Receipts	86,84	3,73,20	3,73,20
Small Savings	2,33,10	3,26,25	3,57,11
Depreciation, Development and Reserve Funds	1,12,15	1,55,56	1,60,65
Others	1,83,41	2,07,26	1,82,48
Total Obligations in India	21,32,59	25,00,73	25,25,17
In England :			
Loans	5,80	1,35	1,32
Others	43,60	34,82	32,32
Total Obligations in England	49,40	36,17	33,64
Dollar Loans	—	24,60	28,50
TOTAL	21,81,99	25,61,50	25,87,40
INTEREST-YIELDING ASSETS			
Capital advanced to Railways	6,75,87	8,14,13	8,34,38
Capital advanced to other Commercial Departments	43,86	90,11	1,08,00
Capital advanced to States and other interest-bearing loans	73,15	2,16,97	2,78,88
Debt due from Burma and Pakistan	3,48,15	3,48,15	3,48,15
Deposits with U.K. Government	19,65	2,11,85	1,52,16
TOTAL	11,60,68	16,81,21	17,22,35
Cash and Securities held on Treasury Account	2,46,12	1,41,97	52,29
Balance of total interest bearing obligations not covered by the above ..	7,75,19	7,38,32	8,12,76

CAPITAL BUDGET

Dealing with the Capital Budget, the Finance Minister stated that the 1950-51 budget provided for a capital expenditure of Rs. 62 crores and Rs. 34·8 crores for loans to the State Governments, the revised estimates being Rs. 83 crores and Rs. 67 crores respectively. For 1951-52 a total provision of Rs. 77 crores has been made for capital outlay and Rs. 62·62 crores for loans to States.

The Statement of Receipts and Disbursements on Capital Account is a self-contained Capital Budget. It takes credit for the amount provided in the Revenue Budget for amortisation or reduction of debt. The statement summarising the estimates of Capital Receipts and Disbursements is given below :—

SUMMARY OF CAPITAL TRANSACTIONS

(In lakhs of Rupees)

	Budget 1950-51	Revised 1950-51	Budget 1951-52
Receipts—			
Sale proceeds of U.S. and Lend-Lease Surpluses	70	4,68	1,80
New Loans	85,36	38,97	1,04,84
Treasury Bills*	..	10,00	..
Treasury Deposit Receipts*	75	—7,50	..
Treasury Savings Deposit Certificates*	..	3,00	12,00
Post Office Savings Bank Deposits*	18,20	16,80	18,65
Defence Savings Bank Deposits*	— 30	— 17	— 12
Post Office Cash Certificates*	— 4,85	— 4,10	— 3,80
National Savings Certificates*	15,50	16,50	17,00
Defence Savings Certificates*	— 70	— 75	— 87
Other Unfunded Debt*	6,72	6,88	8,29
Railway Depreciation Fund*	6	2,59	— 4,83
Revenue Reserve Fund (Railways)*	2,32	4,61	12,44
Railway Development Fund*	4,53	4,52	2,33
Telephone Development Fund*	..	— 25	— 30
P. & T. Renewals Reserve Fund*	— 11	— 22	1
Other Miscellaneous Reserve Funds*	4	5	— 5
Appropriation for Reduction or Avoidance of Debt*	5,00	5,00	5,00
E.P.T. and Income-Tax Deposits*	— 41,56	— 41,83	— 34,29
Discount Sinking Fund*	1,00	75	82
Payment by Reserve Bank for Rupee Coin	5,00	5,00	5,00
Repayment of Loans by States	13,85	13,65	7,44
Other Deposits and Advances*	16,26	41,47	13,97
Contingency Fund of India	..	15,00	..
Total	1,27,77	1,34,65	1,65,33
Deficit on Capital Account	23,94	66,97	77,83
	1,51,71	2,01,62	2,43,16
Disbursements—			
Capital Outlay :—			
Railways	19,49	24,13	19,62
Irrigation	50	40	50
Posts and Telegraphs	5,64	5,52	5,45
Industrial Development	9,63	10,26	10,56
Aviation	1,50	2,05	1,92
Broadcasting	60	37	60
Ports	1,11	89	1,91
Currency	2	2,65	..
Mint	49	61	33
New Capital at Delhi	1,76	1,70	1,10
Multi-purpose River Schemes	1,60	2,44	2,44
Civil Works	7,09	9,94	12,47
Commutation of Pensions	43	81	35
Sterling Pensions	— 7,37	— 7,37	— 7,31
Defence Capital Outlay	2,15	5,75	12,97
Schemes of Government Trading	7,37	1,85	13,68
Grants to States for Development	9,59	5,50	..
Other Civil Heads	40	63	53
Discharge of Permanent Debt	47,61	47,00	90,71
Advances to State Governments	34,81	66,68	62,62
Other Loans and Advances*	7,29	4,81	12,71
Contingency Fund of India	..	15,00	..
Total	1,51,71	2,01,62	2,43,16

* Figures are net.

The statement below gives a broad analysis of the receipts and disbursements of the Central Government in 1951-52 showing separately the transactions in India and outside the country. The net disbursement abroad of Rs. 171·2 crores does not include expenditure financed by remittances from the country through ordinary banking channels, the amount of which is, however, very small.

(In lakhs of Rupees)

	India	Abroad	Total
RECEIPTS			
Revenue	3,68,80	109	3,69,89*
Capital Receipts	1,80	..	1,80
Loans raised	1,00,00	4,84	1,04,84
Small savings net	42,86	..	42,86
Repayment of loans to Central Government	8,70	..	8,70
Other debt and deposit transactions (net)	23,57	..	23,57
Total	5,45,73	5,93	5,51,66
Opening Balance	92,02	3,40	95,42
Grand Total	6,37,75	9,33	6,47,08
DISBURSEMENTS			
Expenditure met from Revenue	3,44,48	30,95	3,75,43
Capital Outlay	—50,42 †	1,27,54	77,12
Loans repaid	87,40	3,31	90,71
Loans by the Central Government	76,59	..	76,59
Other debt and deposit transactions (net)	..	15,33	15,33
Total	4,58,05	1,77,13	6,35,18
Closing Balance	8,50	3,40	11,90*
Grand Total	4,66,85	1,80,53	6,47,08
Net	+ 87,68	—1,71,20	— 83,52

*Exclusive of budget proposals involving fresh taxation to yield Rs. 31,15 lakhs.

†Minus figure due to recoveries in India of expenditure incurred abroad, as for example on imported foodgrains.

Taking the budget as a whole, transactions in India are estimated to give a surplus of Rs. 87·68 crores and transactions abroad a deficit of Rs. 171·2 crores. The net result is a deficit of Rs. 83·52 crores, reflected in the reduction of the opening balance of Rs. 95·42 crores to Rs. 11·9 crores at the end of the year.

LAND REVENUE

The principle underlying the land revenue system in the sub-continent has been from time immemorial on the basis that government is the supreme landlord and the revenue derived from land is by way of rent. The official term for the method of collection is "Settlement". These are of three types. The permanent *Zamindari* System is mainly found in the Bengal area, Bihar, the U.P. and parts of Madras and covers roughly an area of 120 million acres equivalent to 19 per cent. of the total agricultural area of the sub-continent. In the second group are the temporarily settled Zamindars such as *Malguzari, Maharwari, Khoti, Narvadari, Bhagdari, Inami* and *Taluqdari.* These are found mostly in Madhya Pradesh, the Punjab, parts of U.P., the Bengal area and Bombay covering about 30 per cent. of the area of the sub-continent. The remaining 51 per cent. or approximately 285 million acres are under the *ryotwari* system covering parts of Bombay and most parts of Madras, Berar, Sind, Assam and the Punjab area.

The Governments of Madras, the U.P., Bihar, Assam, Madhya Pradesh and Berar, and West Bengal have decided to abolish the *Zamindari* system. To Madras goes the credit of being the first State to put a measure of this kind on the statute book. The Madras Bill received the assent of the Governor-General early in April, 1949. The validity of the Zamindari Abolition Acts was contested in the various State High Courts and the Supreme Court so much so that the Constitution Act itself was amended to make such bills valid. (See under Constitution).

The incidence of the revenue charges varies according to the nature of the settlement, the class of tenure, and the character and circumstances of the holding. Under the Permanent Settlement the old undivided Bengal Government derived rather less than £3,000,000 from a total rental estimated at £12,000,000. Under Temporary Settlements, 50 per cent. of the rental in the case of *Zamindari* land might be regarded as virtually a maximum demand. In some parts the impost fell as low as 35 and even 25 per cent. and only rarely was the proportion of half the rental exceeded. In regard to *ryotwari* tracts it is impossible to give any figure that would be generally representative of the Government's share. But one-fifth of the gross produce was the extreme limit, below which the incidence of the revenue charge varied greatly.

It may be recalled that about sixty years ago, the Government of India were invited in an influentially signed memorial to fix one-fifth of the gross produce as the maximum Government demand. In reply to this memorial and other representations the Government of India (Lord Curzon being Viceroy) issued a Resolution in defence of their Land Revenue Policy. In it was stated that "under the existing practice the Government is already taking much less in revenue than it is now invited to exact" and "the average rate is everywhere on the down grade." This Resolution, together with the statements of Provincial Governments on which it was based, was published as a volume.

In a series of propositions claimed to be established by this Resolution the following points were noted:—(1) In *Zamindari* tracts progressive moderation is the keynote of the Government's policy, and the standard of 50 per cent. of the assets is more often departed from on the side of deficiency than excess; (2) in the same areas the State does not hesitate to interfere by legislation to protect the interests of the tenants against oppression at the hands of the landlords; (3) in *Ryotwari* tracts the policy of long-term settlements is being extended, and the proceedings in connection with new settlements simplified and cheapened; (4) local-taxation (of land) as a whole is neither immoderate nor burdensome; (5) over assessment is not, as alleged, a general or widespread source of poverty, and it cannot fairly be regarded as a contributory cause of famine. At the same time the Government laid down as principles for future guidance—(*a*) large enhancements of revenue, when they occur, to be imposed progressively and gradually, and not *per saltum*; (*b*) greater elasticity in revenue collection, suspensions and remissions being allowed according to seasonal variations and the circumstances of the people; (*c*) a more general resort to reduction of assessments in cases of local deterioration.

Land revenue was the mainstay of provincial finance till 1938-39 and still continues to be an important source of revenue. In U.P. and Madhya Pradesh, it represented 63.89 per cent. and 65.10 per cent. of the provincial revenues in 1938-39; but the respective percentage for 1949-50 was 19.36 and 31.38. Yet, its receipts have tended to be upward.

EXCISE

The excise revenue in the sub-continent can be classified into two divisions—one derived from the Central Excise Duties and belonging to the Central Government's finance and the other derived from the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors, hemp drugs, toddy and opium. The latter is a provincial revenue. The revenue from the Central Excise Duties has increased by ten times since 1937-38. As against a comparatively small revenue of Rs. 7,66 lakhs in 1937-38 and Rs. 12,79 lakhs in 1942-43, the actuals for 1945-46 totalled Rs. 46,36 lakhs. The budget for 1950-51 estimated the revenue at Rs. 71,55 lakhs. These duties are at present levied on motor spirit, kerosene, sugar, matches, steel ingots, tyres, tobacco, vegetable product, betel-nut, coffee, tea cotton cloth and coal cess.

The Budget of the Government of India for 1944-45 brought in force important changes in the field of Central Excises. It raised the rates of duty on unmanufactured tobacco and on cigars and cheroots and included in the Central Excise Tariff betel-nuts, coffee and tea.

A further change in respect of tobacco was proposed in the following year. Accordingly, the highest class of flue-cured tobacco in the excise tariff was sub-divided into three and subjected to a duty of Rs.7-8, Rs.5 or Rs.3-8 per lb., according as it was intended for use in manufacturing cigarettes containing more than 60 per cent., more than 40 but not more than 60 per cent. or more than 20 but not more than 40 per cent. by weight of imported tobacco. In order to avoid double incidence, some of the provincial Governments reached an agreement with the Centre by which they withdrew the provincial excise duty on tobacco in lieu of a share in the proceeds from the Centre's tobacco excise. Tobacco excise has been responsible for nearly half the receipts under Central Excise Duties.

The budget proposals for 1951-52 provided for a stiff increase in tobacco duties; but the Act, as finally enacted, slashed the proposals to the tune of Rs. 5 crores. The excise duty on cloth was first introduced in January 1949.

The 1951-52 Budget also provides for an increase of 5 per cent. in the excise duties on motor spirit and kerosene so as to equalise the duties of customs and excise and for certain changes in the excise duty on tobacco.

The provincial excise revenue in the sub-continent is derived from the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors, hemp drugs, toddy and opium. The percentage of excise to total revenues of the provincial Government increased from 16·0 to 24·5 between 1938-39 and 1945-46.

Since then, however, excise revenue has been pushed into the background by the prohibition policy of the State governments. It completely disappeared in Madras in 1949-50 and in Bombay in the following year.

The following table shows the proceeds from State excise :—

	1946-47	1950-51 Budget
	(In lakhs of Rs.)	
Madras	14,68	32
Bombay	9,74	1,13
U.P.	6,74	5,81
Madhya Pradesh ..	2,24	2,27
West Bengal	6,42	5,88
Orissa	1,11	1,69
Punjab	3,32	2,20
Bihar	5,15	4,94
Assam	82	68
Total ..	50,22	24,92

CUSTOMS

Import duties have varied from time to time according to the financial condition of the country. Before the 1857 upheaval they were five per cent.; in the days of financial stringency which followed they were raised to 10 and in some cases 20 per cent. In 1875 they were reduced to five per cent.; but the opinions of Free Traders, and the agitation of Lancashire manufacturers who felt the competition of the Indian mills, induced a movement which led to the abolition of all customs dues in 1882. The continued fall in exchange compelled the Government of India to look for fresh sources of revenue and in 1894 five per cent. duties were reimposed.

Since the Great War of 1914-18, there has been a growing tendency towards larger reliance on Customs duties to meet the financial needs of the Centre. Between 1913-14 and 1924-25, a certain amount of shifting of the burden from the richer class to the masses was evident. Then came the policy of discriminating protection and of Imperial Preference in terms of the Ottawa Trade Agreement of 1932, which, in addition to the financial consideration shaped the Customs tariffs. The Customs schedule was completely recast in the Budget of 1916-17 in order to meet the budgetary deficit and the tariffs were raised again in 1921-22 to fill in the large gap between the revenue and the expenditure. The Supplementary Finance Act of 1931 imposed fresh increases in the import duties and the Tariff Amendment Act of January 1, 1933, provided for giving effect to the Ottawa Agreement. During the Second World War and in the post-war period, customs duties were used for augmenting Government revenues.

On the eve of the First World War, the revenue from Customs duties had totalled only Rs. 11.13 crores. By 1929-30 it reached Rs. 51.28 crores when the law of diminishing returns became operative and by 1938-39 it declined to Rs. 40.51 crores following the reduction in the international trade in the subsequent years of the war. The proceeds from the Customs duties in 1942-43 amounted to only Rs. 25.12 crores being the lowest for a quarter of a century. Since then, however, there has been a reversal of the trend and the revised estimates for 1946-47 placed the receipts at Rs. 87½ crores and those for 1947-48 at Rs. 93 crores. The actuals of customs revenue were Rs. 126.15 crores for 1948-49 and Rs. 124.71 crores in the following year. The budget estimates for 1950-51 placed the receipts at Rs. 106.54 crores; but the revised estimates showed them at Rs. 145.31 crores. On this basis, the budget for 1951-52 expected the receipts to amount to Rs. 141.29 and the proposed increases in the duties were estimated to yield Rs. 8.75 crores.

The import tariff is cast in the form of a commodity schedule with broad distinctions indicating the treatment to be accorded to various classes of articles. The general rate of import duty (now 25 per cent. plus a temporary surcharge of 1/5th) applies to all articles other than those specially listed, certain luxury items which carry a high rate of tax, certain items subjected to protective duties and certain other items which are declared duty free or subjected to a low rate of duty, in the interests of indigenous industry or the economy of the country. Luxury items which are subjected to the heaviest rates of duty (ranging from 75 per cent. to 100 per cent. or more), mainly consist of tobacco manufactures, wines and spirits, artificial silk goods, gold plated articles, fabrics containing gold or silver thread, gold and silver thread manufactures, silver thread and wire, games and sports requisites, clocks and watches, etc. In the case of protected items, of which the more important are sugar, some chemicals, matches, silk and art silk fabrics, certain manufactures of iron and steel, sewing machines, cycles and certain items of machinery and parts, the rates of duty are fixed at such amounts and for such periods as are found necessary having regard to the recommendations of the Tariff Board. Grains and pulses and a number of raw materials for industry are on the free list, while a specially low but varying rates of tax cover a large number of essential items like fuel oils, batching oils, lubricants, raw films, textile machinery, etc.

Export duties cover a number of items of which jute and tea are the most important. An important addition since 1949-50 has been the duty on black pepper. During 1950-51 new export duties were levied on cotton waste and raw wool at 50 per cent. and 30 per cent. respectively *ad valorem* and the export duties on raw cotton and jute manufactures were enhanced, the former from Rs. 100 to Rs. 400 per bale and the latter from Rs. 50 to Rs. 150 in the case of sacking and from Rs. 350 to Rs. 750 and later to Rs. 1,500 per ton in the case of hessian.

The 1951-52 Budget provides for an enhanced surcharge of 5 per cent. on all items in the import schedule except such of them as are governed by specific agreements under the general agreement relating to trade and tariffs, an increase in the present surcharge of 100 per cent. on ale, beer, spirits, and other fermented liquor by 50 per cent., rationalisation of the incidence of import duties on mineral oils, other than motor spirit and kerosene ; a levy of an export duty of Rs. 80 per ton on groundnut kernel, and introduction of an export duty of 10 per cent. *ad valorem* on coarse and medium cloth excluding furnishing fabrics and manufactures like hosiery and apparel.

INCOME-TAX

Income-tax was first imposed in India in 1860 in order to meet the financial dislocation caused by the 1857 upheaval. The rate was four per cent. on all incomes above Rs. 500. Minor changes took place until the schedule was consolidated in the Act of 1886. This imposed a tax on all incomes other than agricultural income. In March 1903, the minimum taxable income was raised from Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,000. The income-tax schedule was completely revised, raised and graduated in the budget of 1916-17 to meet the deficit arising out of war conditions.

The next stage was Act XI of 1922 which is still our basic legislation in respect of income-tax, though numerous and sometimes radical changes have been made in it from time to time and particularly in 1939. The 1922 enactment recognised the expediency of limiting the Income-Tax Act to the provision of machinery and procedure for the assessment of income-tax, leaving rates of taxation to be fixed every year by Finance Acts. It adopted the principle of making the assessment on the income of the "previous year" and vested wide powers in assessing officers.

In 1935, the Government of India appointed a Committee (The Ayers Committee) "to make an investigation of the Indian income-tax system in all its aspects and to report upon both the incidence of the tax and the efficiency of its administration." In making its report, this Committee claimed that its recommendations were designed "to secure the fairest possible treatment of the honest tax-payer and at the same time to strengthen the Department in dealing with fraudulent evasion and what is known as legal avoidance." Amendments based on these recommendations were introduced in the legislature in 1938 and they became law in 1939.

The amendments made in 1939 and subsequently have greatly elaborated the law. The tax is levied now not only on income as ordinarily understood but also on certain capital receipts which have been included in a special definition of "income." Tax at the rate fixed for the year of assessment is charged on the income of the "previous year." Both income-tax and super-tax are levied according to the slab system.

Prior to 1914, the receipts from taxation on income were hardly 3 crores; but they went up to Rs. 22 crores in 1921-22 owing to the increase in rates. The industrial depression, however, resulted in a set-back in the following years and even in 1938-39, it did not exceed Rs. 17.28 crores. The war period witnessed a strong emphasis on this source for the purpose of governmental finance and the revenue from this source realised in 1945-46 amounted to Rs. 178.03 crores representing 49.4 per cent. of the total revenue.

The total collections for 1949-50 of income-tax and corporation tax in the Indian Union amounted to Rs. 1,61,11 lakhs in 1949-50. The budget estimates for 1950-51 placed the collections at Rs. 1,60,78 lakhs, while the revised figure is Rs. 1,66,80 lakhs. On the basis of the current year's rates, the receipts in 1951-52 have been placed at Rs. 1,57,05 lakhs. This includes Rs. 10.25 crores on account of the final balance of the advance payment of tax under Section 18A which is being taken to revenue instead of being adjusted as a deposit. This procedure was started in 1948-49 and will be completed in 1951-52.

While Corporation tax accrues in its entirety to the Centre, the net proceeds of income-tax, except the tax attributable to Central emoluments and Centrally administered areas and any Central surcharge, are divisible between the Centre and the States. The percentage to be assigned to the States has to be prescribed by the President by order after considering the recommendations of the Finance Commission and until such a Commission starts working prescribed by the President's order. For the present the States' share has been fixed at 50 per cent. of the net proceeds allocable between the Centre and States.

Under the scheme of federal financial integration the continuing States and Unions are entitled to the same share of income-tax as Part A States but this share is set off against any grants payable by the Centre to these States for meeting the actual loss caused to them by the lifting of federal revenue and expenditure from their budgets. The income-tax from these States is accordingly not included in the divisible pool but half the net proceeds in each State is computed as its share and paid to it or set off against its grant as the case may be. As Hyderabad, Mysore, Travancore-Cochin and Saurashtra are receiving grants to meet their revenue gaps which are higher than their estimated shares of income-tax revenue, no payment of income-tax share is due to them. The Unions of Madhya Bharat, Rajasthan and Patiala and East Punjab States are, however, entitled to receive a share of income-tax. The arrangement in regard to States merged in the former Indian Provinces is similar and in respect these also, as the grants exceed the estimated share of income-tax revenue, no payment on this account will be due.

The Income-Tax Investigation Commission submitted its report on the existing law of income-tax towards the end of 1948 and the same was published towards the end of 1949. The report is under the examination of the Government of India and a Bill based on its recommendations is being drafted. Meantime, the following summary of the principal recommendations will be found interesting :—

(1) A radical change is both necessary and justified in the treatment by the Indian Income-tax Law of persons resident in the Indian States.

(2) In taxing non-residents in respect of their Indian income, the rate appropriate to their Indian income with a surcharge of 20 or 25 per cent. may be adopted with an option to the assessee to prove his foreign income.

(3) The tax in respect of life insurance companies should be assessed on the aggregate of the dividends reserved for share-holders and so much of the bonus allocated to the policy-holders as is in excess of the load provided by the premia. The allowance in regard to renewal premium should be raised from 12 per cent. to 15 per cent. There is no justification for discriminating in favour of insurance companies and reducing in their case the 5-anna rate of income-tax to 45 pies in a rupee.

(4) There is advantage in public exposure of persons who are guilty of deliberately cheating the revenue.

(5) Income-Tax Officers should have powers to gather relevant information, particularly to deal effectively with persons suspected of having black-market dealings and to enter business premises and inspect accounts, to make a search of places and to call for information from banks and other business houses.

(6) The training to be given to officers directly recruited to the department should be improved.

(7) The investigation branch should be expanded and strengthened and the conditions of work of the ministerial staff should be improved.

The second part of the work of the Commission relates to the investigation of individual cases referred to it. Out of a total number of 1,390 cases referred to them they have disposed of 337 cases, including those settled by agreement. Of the cases so far disposed of by them a sum of nearly Rs. 6½ crores is likely to be recoverable while the actual recoveries amount to Rs. 90 lakhs. Recoveries have lagged behind assessment because in many cases extensions of time have had to be given by the Commission, taking into account the assessee's present capacity to pay what in effect is the tax demand of several years. The cases still pending with the Commission are at various stages of investigation. It is, therefore, impossible to give an idea of the time it would take for the completion of the work. The term of office of the Commission expired at the end of March 1951 but in view of the large volume of work still remaining to be done, its life has been indefinitely extended by amending the Act.

Guide to Taxes on Income (1951-52)

Part I.

RATES OF INCOME-TAX

A. In the case of every individual, Hindu undivided family, unregistered firm and other association of persons, not being a case to which paragraph B or C of this Part applies—

	Rate	Surcharge
1. On the first Rs. 1,500 of total income	*Nil.*	*Nil.*
2. On the next Rs. 3,500 of total income	Nine pies in the rupee.	1/20th of the rate specified in the preceding column.
3. On the next Rs. 5,000 of total income	One anna and nine pies in the rupee.	—Do—
4. On the next Rs. 5,000 of total income	Three annas in the rupee.	—Do—
5. On the balance of total income	Four annas in the rupee.	—Do—

Provided that—

(*i*) no income-tax shall be payable on a total income which, before deduction of the allowance, if any, for earned income, does not exceed the limit specified below ;

(*ii*) the income-tax payable shall in no case exceed half the amount by which the total income (before deduction of the said allowance, if any, for earned income) exceeds the said limit ;

(*iii*) the income-tax payable on the total income as reduced by the allowance for earned income shall not exceed either—

(*a*) a sum bearing to half the amount by which the total income (before deduction of the allowance for earned income) exceeds the said limit the same proportion as such reduced total income bears to the unreduced total income, or

(*b*) the income-tax payable on the income so reduced at the rates herein specified,—whichever is less.

The limit referred to in the above proviso shall be—

(1) Rs. 7,200 in the case of every Hindu undivided family which satisfies as at the end of the previous year either of the following conditions, namely :—

(*a*) that it has at least two members entitled to a share on partition who are not less than 18 years of age ; or

(*b*) that it has at least two members entitled to a share on partition neither of whom is a lineal descendant of the other and both of whom are not lineally descended from any other living member of the family ; and

(2) Rs. 3,600 in every other case.

B. In the case of every company, not being a company to which paragraph C of this Part applies—

	Rate	Surcharge
On the whole of total income	Four annas in the rupee.	1/20th of the rate specified in the preceding column.

Provided that in the case of a company which, in respect of its profits liable to tax under the Income-Tax Act for the year ending on March 31, 1951, has made the prescribed arrangements for the declaration and payment within the territory of India excluding the State of Jammu and Kashmir, of the dividends payable out of such profits, and has deducted super-tax from the dividends in accordance with the provisions of sub-section (3D) or (3E) of section 18 of that Act—

(*i*) where the total income, as reduced by seven annas in the rupee and by the amount, if any, exempt from income-tax exceeds the amount of any dividends (including dividends payable at a fixed rate) declared in respect of the whole or part of the previous year for the assessment for the year ending on March 31, 1951, and no order has been made under sub-section (1) of section 23A of the Income-Tax Act, a rebate shall be allowed at the rate of one anna per rupee or the amount of such excess ;

(*ii*) where the amount of dividends referred to in clause (*i*) above exceeds the total income as reduced by seven annas in the rupee and by the amount, if any, exempt from income-tax, there shall be charged on the total income an additional income-tax equal to the sum, if any, by which the aggregate amount of income-tax actually borne by such excess (hereinafter referred to as "the excess dividend") falls short of the amount calculated at the rate of five annas per rupee on the excess dividend.

For the purposes of the above proviso, the expression "dividend" shall have the meaning assigned to it in clause (6A) of section 2 of the Income-tax Act, but any distribution included in that expression, made during the year ending on the 31st day of March, 1951, shall be deemed to be a dividend declared in respect of the whole or part of the previous year.

For the purposes of clause (*ii*) of the above proviso, the aggregate amount of income-tax actually borne by the excess dividend shall be determined as follows :—

(*i*) the excess dividend shall be deemed to be out of the whole or such portion of the undistributed profits of one or more years immediately preceding the previous year as would be just sufficient to cover the amount of the excess dividend and as have not likewise been taken into account to cover an excess dividend of a preceding year ;

(*ii*) such portion of the excess dividend as is deemed to be out of the undistributed profits of each of the said years shall be deemed to have borne tax,—

(*a*) if an order has been made under sub-section (*1*) of section 23A of the Income-tax Act, XI of 1922, in respect of the undistributed profits of that year, at the rate of five annas in the rupee, and

(*b*) in respect of any other year, at the rate applicable to the total income of the company, for that year reduced by the rate at which rebate, if any, was allowed on the undistributed profits.

C. In the case of every local authority and in every case in which, under the provisions of the Income-tax Act, income-tax is to be charged at the maximum rate—

	Rate	Surcharge
On the whole of total income	Four annas in the rupee.	1/20th of the rate specified in the preceding column.

Part II.

RATES OF SUPER-TAX

A. In the case of every individual, Hindu undivided family, unregistered firm and other association of persons, not being a case to which any other paragraph of this Part applies—

——	Rate	Surcharge
1. On the first Rs. 25,000 of total income.	*Nil.*	*Nil.*
2. On the next Rs. 15,000 of total income.	Three annas in the rupee.	1/20th of the rate specified in the preceding column.
3. On the next Rs. 15,000 of total income.	Four annas in the rupee.	—Do—
4. On the next Rs. 15,000 of total income.	Six annas in the rupee.	—Do—
5. On the next Rs. 15,000 of total income.	Seven annas in the rupee.	—Do—
6. On the next Rs. 15,000 of total income.	Seven and a half annas in the rupee	—Do—
7. On the next Rs. 50,000 of total income.	Eight annas in the rupee.	—Do—
8. On the balance of total income.	Eight and a half annas in the rupee.	—Do—

B. In the case of every local authority—

——	Rate	Surcharge
On the whole of total income	Two and a half annas in the rupee.	Three pies in the rupee.

C. In the case of an association of persons being a co-operative society (other than the Sanikatta Saltowners' Society in the State of Bombay) for the time being registered under the Co-operative Societies Act of 1912, or under any law of a State governing the registration of co-operative societies—

——	Rate	Surcharge
1. On the first Rs. 25,000 of total income.	*Nil.*	*Nil.*
2. On the balance of total income.	Two and a half annas in the rupee.	Three pies in the rupee.

D. In the case of every company—

——	Rate
On the whole of total income	Four and three-quarter annas in the rupee.

Provided that—

(*i*) a rebate at the rate of three annas per rupee of the total income shall be allowed in the case of any company which—

(*a*) in respect of its profits liable to tax under the Income-tax Act for the year ending on the 31st day of March 1952, has made the prescribed arrangements for the declaration and payment in the territory of India excluding the State of Jammu and Kashmir of the dividend payable out of such profits and for the deduction of super-tax from dividends in accordance with the provisions of sub-section (3D) or (3E) of section 18 of that Act, and

(*b*) is a public company with total income not exceeding Rs. 25,000;

(*ii*) a rebate at the rate of two annas per rupee of the total income shall be allowed in the case of any company which satisfies condition (*a*), but not condition (*b*), of the preceding clause; and

(*iii*) a rebate at the rate of one anna per rupee of the total income shall be allowed in the case of any company which, not being entitled to a rebate under either of the preceding clauses, is—

(*a*) a public company the shares of which were offered for sale in a recognised stock exchange at any time during the previous year, or

(*b*) a company all of whose shares were held at the end of the previous year by one or more such public companies as aforesaid :

Provided further that the super-tax payable by a company the total income of which exceeds Rs. 25,000 shall not exceed the aggregate of—

(*a*) the super-tax which would have been payable by the company if its total income had been Rs. 25,000, and

(*b*) half the amount by which its total income exceeds Rs. 25,000.

Explanation.—For the purposes of this paragraph of this Part, a company shall be deemed to be a public company only if it is neither a private company within the meaning of the Indian Companies Act, 1913, nor a company in which shares carrying more than fifty per cent. of the total voting power were, at any time during the previous year, held or controlled by less than six persons.

SALES TAX

Sales tax is comparatively a recent find in the field of provincial finance. The credit for introducing it first in India goes to Mr. C. Rajagopalachari, former Finance Minister of Madras, who was faced in 1939 with the problem of finding an alternative source of revenue consequent on the introduction of prohibition in the State. Since then it has become an important feature of the provincial revenues throughout the country. W. Bengal, Bihar and Bombay have adopted a single-point sales tax on the last sales, while elsewhere it is levied at every stage. A broad idea of the receipts from sales tax can be had from the following table :—

(Rs. in thousands)

——	First Levied	Receipts in First Year	Receipts in 1950-51 (Budget)
Madras	1939-40	33,99	15,00,00
Bombay	1942-43	11,34	10,46,00
Madhya Pradesh	1947-48	62,48	1,89,00
Uttar Pradesh	1948-49	4,00,00	5,35,00
Bihar	1943-44	—2,11	1,99,00
Assam	1947-48	2	40,00
Orissa	1947-48	5,61	75,00
Punjab	1941-42	32	1,45,00
West Bengal	1941-42	15,62	4,00,00

An important constitutional change in regard to the sales tax was incorporated in the Constitution of the Republic of India. Article 286 of the Constitution, imposes restrictions on the power of a State to levy a tax on the sale or purchase of goods where such sale or purchase takes place outside the State or in the course of the import of goods into or the export of goods out of the territory of India. Further, the right to impose a tax of this description will be regulated by Parliament in respect of sales or purchases taking place in the course of inter-State trade or commerce. Lastly, no sales or purchase tax can be levied on articles which are declared by Parliament to be essential for the life of the community, unless agreed to by the President.

INSURANCE

FROM the figures given in the foregoing pages it will be seen that the new business done in 1949 exceeded that done in any year except 1945 and 1946. This is very heartening when one bears in mind the pressure exerted by the rising cost of living and the high rate of taxation.

In the matter of expenses the experience of Insurers has not been favourable. Renewal Expense Ratios show a gradual rise. There is also an increase in lapses, while the average net rate of interest earned has registered only a very small increase.

The economic conditions in the country have not improved and the position has been rendered even more precarious by the international situation. The Korean War has contributed to inflationary tendencies. Government have also reached their optimum in borrowing potentialities, and new taxation seems to be the only way out of a difficult situation. All these indications point to a still further rise in general costs. They should serve as a warning to insurers to exercise caution in making new plans.

There was a steady expansion in the incomes of the insurers doing fire and other classes of general business.

(Figures taken from the Government of India Insurance Year Book).

——	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950
Total Number of Companies	340	346	339	339	341
Total Number of Indian Companies (Mostly Life)	239	245	232	234	235
Total Number of non-Indian Companies (Mostly non-Life) ..	101	101	107	105	106
	Up to 30th Sept. 1946.	Up to 15th Aug. 1947.	Up to 30th Sept. 1948.	Up to 7th Oct. 1949.	Up to 7th Oct. 1950.
Average Value of new Life Policy Issued by Indian Companies during year..	Rs. 2,205	Rs. 2,177	Rs. 2,306	Rs. 2,306	Rs. 2,341
Average Value of new Life Policy Issued by non-Indian Companies during year	Rs. 6,114	Rs. 6,170	Rs. 6,300	Rs. 6,300	Rs. 6,698

LIFE BUSINESS

——	New Business.					Total Business in Force.				
	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949
Number of Policies Issued..	599,000	617,000	544,000	486,000	544,000	2,592,000	2,797,000	2,936,000	3,025,000	3,303,000
Number of Policies with Indian Companies ..	777,000	596,000	524,000	467,000	526,000	2,376,000	2,569,000	2,707,000	2,791,000	3,074,000
Number of Policies with non-Indian Companies..	22,000	21,000	20,000	19,000	18,000	216,000	228,000	229,000	234,000	229,000
	Rs. Crores	Rs. Crores	Rs. Crores	Rs. Crores	Rs. Crores	Rs. Crores	Rs. Crores	Rs. Crores	Rs. Crores	Rs. Crores
Sums Assured (including Reversionary Bonus additions)	135·38	144·27	126·40	119·65	135·35	551·28	615·35	649·07	667·46	739·49
Sums Assured with Indian Companies	122·78	131·43	114·06	107·68	123·13	459·43	514·50	547·17	566·38	636·95
Sums Assured with non-Indian Companies ..	12·60	12·84	12·34	11·97	12·22	91·85	100·85	101·90	101·08	102·54
Premium Income	7·47	7·94	6·93	6·48	7·47	28·04	31·24	32·81	33·27	37·18
Premium Income of Indian Companies	6·73	7·21	6·22	5·77	6·73	22·81	25·59	26·98	27·59	31·46
Premium Income of non-Indian Companies ..	·74	·73	·71	·71	·74	5·23	5·65	5·83	5·68	5·72

ANNUITY BUSINESS

——	1944 Rs. per annum	1945 Rs. per annum	1946 Rs. per annum	1947 Rs. per annum	1948 Rs. per annum	1949 Rs. per annum
Total Annuity Business in force at end of year	42,65,000	55,92,000	61,70,000	65,35,000	57,49,000	73,25,000
Amount Payable by Indian Companies ..	21,84,000	26,11,000	28,80,000	29,80,000	30,77,000	34,22,000
Amount Payable by non-Indian Companies..	20,81,000	29,81,000	32,90,000	35,55,000	26,72,000	39,03,000
Total New Annuity Business in year.. ..	9,46,000	10,42,000	11,51,000	10,77,000	9,45,000	10,83,000
Share of Indian Companies	4,09,000	4,39,000	5,03,000	3,28,000	3,81,000	3,25,000
Share of non-Indian Companies	5,37,000	6,03,000	6,48,000	7,49,000	5,64,000	7,58,000

NON-LIFE BUSINESS

——	1944	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949
	Rs. 7·39 Crores	Rs. 8·88 Crores	Rs. 11·55 Crores	Rs. 13·78 Crores	Rs. 15·06 Crores	Rs. 16·30 Crores
Total Net Premium Income						
Total Net Premium Income of Indian Companies	3·22 ,,	4·94 ,,	6·68 ,,	8·41 ,,	9·27 ,,	10·38 ,,
Total Net Premium Income of non-Indian Companies	4·17 ,,	3·94 ,,	4·86 ,,	5·37 ,,	5·79 ,,	5·92 ,,
Total Fire Premium Income	3·45 ,,	4·69 ,,	6·01 ,,	6·87 ,,	7·39 ,,	7·70 ,,
Total Marine Income	2·47 ,,	2·13 ,,	2·21 ,,	2·90 ,,	3·64 ,,	3·78 ,,
Total Miscellaneous Premium Income ..	1·47 ,,	1·95 ,,	3·32 ,,	4·00 ,,	4·03 ,,	4·82 ,,

GENERAL BACKWARDNESS

Though during the period of the last war, Life Insurance business in the sub-continent registered a great progress over the past, when we compare the present position of Life Insurance business in the sub-continent with that of the other more advanced countries of the world we realise that India has yet a long way to go. The figures published in the Insurance Year Book, show that at the end of the year 1935 the total Life Insurance business in force amounted to Rs. 235 crores distributed over 11 lakhs policies, whereas the total Life Insurance business at the end of the year 1949 amounted to Rs. 739 crores distributed over 33 lakh policies. As the country holds within its borders 360 million people constituting one-sixth of the total population of the world, these figures appear altogether insignificant. On an average taking 4 members in a family there should be 90 million families in India, over which are distributed 30 lakh policies of Life Insurance. Thus only 3 per cent. of families can claim protection of Life Insurance, while 97 per cent. of the families are without such protection. This backwardness in the progress of Life Insurance in this country can only be attributed to the lack of development in the commercial, industrial, agricultural and other allied fields, the lack of education and literacy in the masses, and above all the poverty of the Indian nation.

With a view to checking the various malpractices in the trade Government have amended the Insurance Act.

The three main factors on which the life insurance business depends are (1) mortality experience, (2) interest yield and (3) expenses. Mortality experience of Indian companies is very satisfactory on the whole. The same however could not be said of the other two factors. In the year 1938 the everage yield realised on the funds of life insurance companies was 5·15 per cent. while in 1949 it was reduced to 3·05 per cent. which is likely to show further reduction in 1950 owing to general economic conditions in India and elsewhere. The returns for 1949 show a brisk activity in new life business done by insurers both in the number of new policies issued by them, as well as the sums assured. The total new life business effected in India during the year consisted of 544,000 policies insuring a sum of about Rs. 135 crores, showing an increase of 58,000 policies and about 7 crores in the sum insured as compared with 1948, an increase of about 5 per cent. in the new business effected. In the non-life field the picture is not so rosy. Indian companies secured only 62 per cent. of the total premium income of this country in the year 1949. While the paucity in the number of well-managed Indian companies prior to and in the immediate first post-war period, say upto 1935 might be one of the main reasons why Indian companies did not capture the field, one can notice that when this vacuum began to be filled up, it was done with such startling rapidity that within a short time the saturation point in the floatations of new companies was reached. There were as many as 113 new floatations between 1931 and 1949.

The first consideration in regulating the investments of funds of Life Offices should be to safeguard capital. Without jeopardising the safety of capital, insurance companies can earn better interest yield, if more investments are permitted by Law in Securities other than the Government Approved Securities under Sections 27 and 27A of the Insurance Act, 1938.

INCOME-TAX

Linked with the question of yield on investments is the question of income-tax to be paid by Life Offices. It would be remembered that Insurance Associations had made representations to the Government of India to the effect that they should be assessed on the interest less expenditure basis as is done in the United Kingdom since 1923. The amounts paid to, reserved for or expended on behalf of the policyholders should be exempted from the income-tax. Pending consideration by the Government of the major question of the revision in the basis of the assessment of Life Offices, they urged upon the Government of India to grant immediate relief to Life Offices by lowering the ceiling rate of tax from 60 to at least 45 pies in a Rupee. Insurance Companies claimed that immediate relief in this respect was very necessary as the low interest yield now realised was being further reduced owing to its being subjected to a rate of tax as high as 5 annas in a Rupee. Further in the case of Life Offices which were being taxed on the surplus basis it was found that several such offices during recent years had not been able to disclose a substantial surplus owing mainly to the operation of the interest factor, in their business. However, tax was always deducted at the source at the highest rate prevailing under the provisions of the Income-Tax Act which remained to their credit with the Income-Tax Department and was refunded only subsequently if no surplus was disclosed at their following valuation. Owing to deductions of income-tax at source at the high rate of 60 pies in a Rupee a substantial amount of the revenue of interest on the investments remained locked up with the Income-tax Department which was refunded without interest after a considerable lapse of time. It was therefore essential in the interests of life policyholders that the Government of India should lower the ceiling rate of tax from the present high level to at least 45 pies in a Rupee. That, broadly speaking, was how the case was presented.

Government have now seen the point and part of the claim has been conceded. The ceiling rate for income-tax is now 48 pies in a rupee. The question of the revision of the basis of assessment of life companies however still remains open. Government now allow life companies to take credit in their accounts for tax deducted at the source, and suitable amendments have been effected in the Insurance Act for the purpose. But Section 49 of the Insurance Act through which this change is effected, lays down that only surplus companies can take credit for tax deducted at source. This surplus will present a problem to actuaries as it will be difficult to work out. Even if it can be estimated the application of the law will result in dividing the companies into surplus and deficit.

THE INSURANCE AMENDMENT BILL

The expenses of procuring business as well as overhead expenses in this country are very high compared with other countries. The Insurance (Second) Amendment Bill visualizes a Company working through Chief Agents or Branches and licensed Agents. The present system of organisation adopted by a few big Companies who have large resources consists of Branches, under which there are Inspectors paid on a salary basis and licensed agents. Medium sized and small companies not being sure of the turnover of the business, have got in place of paid-inspectors, special agents, *i.e.* (Employer of Agents other than Chief Agents who are paid on the basis of commission). The provision in the Bill prohibiting the employment of intermediaries, either inspector or organiser or special agents, on terms other than on a salary basis, will hamper the working of companies by Chief Agencies and as a consequence the costs will go up. Such a provision will also place a handicap on companies at a time when companies will be required to make great efforts to reduce their costs to the limits stipulated in the Bill. It is suggested that Insurance Companies should be allowed the freedom to employ intermediaries like Inspectors or Organisers or Special Agents on the basis of commission or fixed remuneration or both. Such a provision would considerably assist Insurance Companies both in building up their business and in complying with the provision of the Bill as regards the restriction of over-all costs.

DISTRIBUTION OF COMPANIES

The total number of insurers registered under the Insurance Act, 1938, up to 7th October, 1950 was 341 of which 235 insurers were Indian insurers and 106 were non-Indian insurers.

Of the 235 Indian insurers 97 had their head offices in Bombay State, 55 in the West Bengal, 33 in the Madras State, 5 in the Punjab, 21 in Delhi State, 8 in Uttar Pradesh, 3 in Madhya Pradesh, one each in Bihar, Assam, Orissa and Ajmer-Merwara, and 7 in the former Indian States and States Unions areas.

Of the 106 non-Indian insurers 66 (including 3 insurers holding standing contracts with Lloyds) were constituted in the United Kingdom, 21 in the British Dominions and Colonies, 9 in the United States of America, 2 in Switzerland, 1 in Java and 6 in Pakistan.

Most of the Indian insurers carry on life insurance business only. They are 135 in number, and of the remaining 100 Indian insurers, 48 carry on life business along with other insurance business, and 50 carry on insurance business other than life only. Of the Indian insurers, 42 are either Mutual Insurance Companies or Co-operative Insurance Societies. Further there are a few pension funds, mostly connected with Government services, and the Postal Insurance Fund which are exempt from the operation of the Insurance Act.

As regards non-Indian insurers, most of them carry on insurance business other than life. Out of the total number of 107 non-Indian insurers, 85 carry on insurance business other than life, 5 carry on life business only, and 15 carry on life business along with other insurance business.

LIFE INSURANCE BUSINESS

The total net new life insurance business effected in India during the year 1949 amounted to 544,000 policies insuring a sum of Rs. 1,35,35 lakhs and having an annual renewal premium of Rs. 7·47 crores, of which the new business done by Indian insurers amounted to 526,000 policies insuring a sum of Rs. 123·13 crores and having a yearly renewal premium income of Rs. 6·73 crores. The new life business effected by non-Indian insurers amounted to 18,000 policies insuring a sum of Rs. 12.22 crores and having a yearly renewal premium income of 0·74 crores.

The average sum insured per policy under the new policies issued in India by Indian insurers was Rs. 2,341 and under those issued by non-Indian insurers about Rs. 6,698.

The total net life insurance business effected in India and remaining in force at the end of 1949 amounted to 3,303,000 policies insuring a total sum of Rs. 739·49 crores including bonus additions and having an annual premium income of Rs. 37·18 crores. Of this the share of Indian insurers is represented by 3,074,000 policies insuring a sum of Rs. 636·95 crores and having an annual premium income of Rs. 31·46 crores. The share of non-Indian insurers is represented by 222,000 policies insuring a sum of Rs. 102·54 crores and having an annual premium income of Rs. 5·72 crores.

The following table shows the New Sums Insured by Indian Life Offices, the Average Sum Insured per policy and the Total Sums Insured in force at the end of the year:—

Year	New Sums Insured.		Total Sums Insured in Force.
	Sum insured (in crores).	Average sum insured per policy.	Sum insured including bonus additions (in crores).
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1934	28·92	1,547	136·65
1935	32·81	1,565	151·63
1936	37·80	1,532	174·67
1937	41·74	1,520	196·74
1938	46·68	1,498	218·86
1939	45·96	1,511	232·42
1940	35·23	1,685	243·91
1941	36·68	1,841	256·43
1942	37·89	2,193	266·60
1943	65·24	2,258	310·95
1944	95·20	2,206	366·15
1945	122·78	2,128	459·43
1946	131·43	2,205	514·50
1947	114·06	2,177	547·17
1948	107·68	2,306	566·38
1949	123·13	2,341	636·95

ANNUITY BUSINESS

The total new annuity business effected during the year 1949 was for the amount of Rs. 10,83,000 per annum, of which the share of Indian Insurers was Rs. 3,25,000 per annum. The total annuity business remaining in force at the end of the year was Rs. 73,25,000 per annum, of which the amount payable by Indian Insurers was Rs. 34,22,000 per annum, and by non-Indian Insurers Rs. 39,03,000 per annum.

Some Indian Life Offices have been operating outside India also. The total new sums insured by these offices outside India in 1945 amounted to 16,500 policies insuring Rs. 5·51 crores having an annual renewal premium of Rs. 0·35 crore. The total business remaining in force at the end of 1949 amounted to 287,000 policies insuring Rs. 61·54 crores and having an annual premium income of Rs. 3·07 crores.

The total income of Indian and non-Indian Insurers during 1948, in respect of their life Insurance business amounted to Rs. 44·93 crores, while the total outgo was Rs. 26·64 crores.

The total income of Indian and non-Indian Insurers during the year 1949, in respect of their life insurance business was made up of :—

(In lakhs of rupees.)

Particulars of Income.	Indian Insurers.	Non-Indian Insurers.
	Rs.	Rs.
Premium	35,17	5,71
Interest, Dividend and Rents	4,93	1,21
Other Receipts	1,00	45
Total ..	41,10	7,37

The total outgo of these insurers during the year in respect of the life insurance business was made up of :—

(In lakhs of rupees.)

Particulars of Outgo.	Indian Insurers.	Non-Indian Insurers.
	Rs.	Rs.
Claims by death ..	3,91	92
Claims by Maturity ..	5,88	2,33
Annuities	9	11
Surrender value ..	76	88
Expenses of Management	10,28	1,25
Depreciation and Transfer to Investment Reserves, etc... ..	1,30	16
Miscellaneous	70	95
Transfer to Shareholders' Reserves and dividends	5	5
Total ..	22,97	6,65

INTEREST RATE & EXPENSE RATIO

The net rate of interest earned on the mean life insurance funds during the year 1949 by Indian Insurers was 3·05 per cent. The net rates of interest realized on mean life insurance funds by the Indian Insurers in each of five years were as follows :—

Year.	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949
Rate of Interest per annum ..	3·48	3·20	3·03	3·02	3·05

The total expenses of management of Indian Insurers in respect of life insurance business, expressed as a percentage of the Premium income during each of five years was as follows :—

Year.	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949
Expense Ratio ..	32·2	31·2	30·4	29·0	29·2

If the figures of half a dozen Insurers having the largest premium income are excluded, the expense ratio in the case of remaining Insurers would be as under :—

Year.	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949
Expense Ratio ..	37·6	37·8	35·1	32·4	33·2

The net rates of interest realised in India on mean life insurance funds by the non-Indian Insurers in each of five years were as follows :—

Year.	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949
Rate of Interest per annum ..	3·22	3·18	3·10	3·15	3·01

The total expenses of management of non-Indian Insurers in respect of Life Insurance business in India expressed as a percentage of the premium income during each of five years was as follows :—

Year.	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949
Expense Ratio ..	19·3	20·2	20·0	21·1	22·0

NON-LIFE BUSINESS

The net premium income of all insurers under insurance business other than life insurance during 1949 was Rs. 16,30 lakhs (Rs. 15,06 lakhs in 1948) of which the Indian Insurers' share was Rs. 10,38 lakhs and that of the non-Indian Insurers Rs. 5,92 lakhs. The total amount was composed of Rs. 7,70 lakhs from Fire, Rs. 3,78 lakhs from Marine, and Rs. 4.82 lakhs from Miscellaneous Insurance business.

The Indian Insurers received Rs. 3,07 lakhs from Fire, Rs. 1,94 lakhs from Marine, and Rs. 5,37 lakhs from Miscellaneous Insurance business.

The non-Indian Insurers received Rs. 2,34 lakhs from Fire, Rs. 1,84 lakhs from Marine, and Rs. 1,74 lakhs from Miscellaneous Insurance business.

Some Indian Insurers who transact fire, marine and miscellaneous insurance business also operate outside India. These insurers had a net premium income of Rs. 3,94 lakhs in 1949 from business outside India showing an increase of Rs. 100 lakhs over last year.

ASSETS OF INSURERS

The assets of all the Indian Insurers amounted to Rs. 2,17,48 lakhs on 31st December 1949, which were held invested in :—

(In lakhs of rupees.)

Particulars.	Amount.
	Rs.
Indian Government Securities ..	1,13,46
Securities of Indian States	2,71
British, Colonial and Foreign Government Securities	3,55
Municipal, Port Trust and Improvement Trust Securities	10,96
Mortgages on Property	6,02
Loans on Policies	10,65
Loans on Stocks and Shares	78
Other Loans	1,09
Shares in Indian Companies	30,22
Land and House Property	8,77
Agents' Balances, outstanding Premium and Interest, etc.	11,06
Deposit, Cash and Stamps	11,44
Miscellaneous	6,77

The following table shows the assets in India of non-Indian Insurers :—

(In lakhs of rupees.)

Insurers constituted in	Total Assets in India of	
	Life or composite companies.	Non-life companies.
United Kingdom ..	18,84	3,36
Dominions and Colonies	21,52	1,75
U.S.A.	..	16
Switzerland	56	5
Total ..	40,92	5,32

PROVIDENT INSURANCE SOCIETIES

On September 30, 1950 there were in existence 98 Provident Societies.

The total new business effected by the societies during the year 1949 amounted to 19,812 policies insuring a sum of Rs. 1,32,15,900. There was no business in Annuities. The premium income received during the year on these policies amounted to Rs. 4,68,000. The business in force at the end of the year amounted to 72,884 policies, insuring a total sum of Rs. 3,50,59,500 including bonuses and annuities for Rs. 11,400.

The total life insurance fund of these societies at the end of 1949 amounted to Rs. 74,46,000.

The net rate of interest realized on mean life funds of the societies in the year was 4·1 per cent., and the total expenses of management expressed as a percentage of the premium income was 42·2.

INSURANCE AGENTS

Insurance agents constitute an important pillar of the insurance structure. The rapid increase in their number during the last few years, as indicated by the table below, naturally raises the question whether the growth has kept within healthy limits or whether the evil of overcrowding is present in this profession as well.

Year.	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949
Number of Agents	122,926	156,992	174,169	170,016	180,737

The total number of licences issued in 1949 records an increase of 10,721 over the figure for 1948 or an increase of 6·3 per cent. The number of fresh and renewal licences issued in 1949 increased by 3,069 and 7,652 respectively over the figure for 1948. The number of agents who did not renew their licences decreased by 11,805.

The rapid increase in the number of agents coupled with the fact that an appreciable number of old agents have not renewed their licences suggests that necessary vigilance is not exercised by companies in the selection of their agents and that there still are a large number of casual insurance workers.

With the amendment of Section 42 of the Act, which has come into force as from September 1, 1950 licences will be issued for a period of three years as against one year which was the practice followed till then. The fees for fresh licences as well as for renewals have also been increased.

TARIFF BOARD

UNTIL 1919 India had no authority to shape her fiscal policy without the approval of the Secretary of State for India. In that year, the Joint Select Committee on the Government of India Bill recommended that "a satisfactory solution of the question (of fiscal policy) can only be guaranteed by the grant of liberty to the Government of India to devise those tariff arrangements which seem best fitted to India's needs." A resolution was issued on October 7, 1921 about the appointment of a Fiscal Commission. It was this report which really laid the foundations of the tariff policy for the country and should be given credit for whatever industrial progress took place during the last quarter of a century.

The Commission recommended "a policy of protection to be applied with discrimination." It distinguished between basic and non-basic industries and recommended that, as a rule, non-basic industries might subject to certain conditions, be assisted by means of import tariff and basic industries should be helped by means of bounties in order to see that the cost of the manufactured articles used by other industries did not rise. Again, it emphasised that export duties on raw or semi-manufactured goods should not be resorted to as a means of assisting industries.

For the purpose of enabling the Government of India to pursue this policy, the Fiscal Commission recommended the creation of a permanent Tariff Board charged with the task of examining the claims of various industries to protection and of watching the operations of the fiscal measures that might be taken by Government from time to time. Simultaneously, the Commission laid down three important conditions for the guidance of the Board as a prerequisite to any recommendation by it for State help. They were: (1) The industry must have natural advantages. (2) The industry is such that without protection it is not likely to develop at all or so rapidly as is desirable in the interest of the country. (3) The industry must be one which will eventually be able to face world competition without protection. It further made clear that the question of the renewal of protection to an industry should also be examined by the Tariff Board from time to time.

The Government of India accepted the recommendation of the Fiscal Commission in regard to the establishment of a Tariff Board and set up the first Tariff Board in July 1923 for a period of one year. The life of the Board, however, was extended from year to year until the outbreak of the World War II though the personnel changed from time to time. During this period the Tariff Board examined the claims of a number of industries for protection and, as a result of its recommendations, help by means of protective tariffs, bounties or subsidies was given to steel, railway wagons, wire and wire nails, bolts and nuts, paper, printers' ink, plywood, safety matches, transmission belting, glass, sugar, silk, the cotton textile industry and a variety of other industries.

NEW DIRECTIVES

During the Second World War, the need for starting new industries to fill in the gap created by the cessation of imports was keenly felt and the Government of India made a definite promise about protection and help if the need arose after the termination of the war. In the statement of Government's industrial policy published on April 21, 1945, Government observed: "The formation of a tariff policy appropriate to the post-war needs and conditions of the country is under active consideration. The subject, however, is one of great complexity, and it will require a little further time for the Government of India to determine its policy and devise the machinery for implementing it. In the meantime, the position of the industries which have been established or developed in wartime requires consideration. Some of these are covered by the announcement made in 1940 in regard to the grant of an assurance of post-war protection to essential wartime industries. Outside the scope of this announcement, however, lie a large number of industries which have helped to sustain the national economy during an exceptionally difficult period. The provision of assistance or protection to such of these industries as have been established on sound lines is likely to assume a measure of urgency during the period of transition. Government propose to set up machinery without delay for the investigation of the claims of such industries for assistance or protection. This is a short-term measure pending the formulation of a long-term tariff policy and the establishment of a permanent machinery for the purpose."

In pursuance of this policy the Interim Tariff Board was constituted by a Resolution dated November 3, 1945. By its terms of reference, the Board was requested to report whether an industry applying for protection satisfied the following conditions:—

"(1) that it is established and conducted on sound business lines;

(2) (*a*) that, having regard to the natural or economic advantages enjoyed by the industry and its actual or probable costs, it is likely within a reasonable time to develop sufficiently to be able to carry on successfully without protection or State assistance; or

(*b*) that it is an industry to which it is desirable in the national interest to grant protection or assistance and that the probable cost of such protection or assistance to the community is not excessive.

Where a claim to protection or assistance is found to be established, the Board will recommend: (*i*) at what rate and in respect of what articles or class or description of articles, a protective duty should be imposed; (*ii*) what additional or alternative measures should be taken to protect or assist the industry; and (*iii*) for what period, not exceeding three years, the tariff or other measures recommended should remain in force. In making its recommendations, the Board will give due weight to the interests of the consumer in the light of the prevailing conditions and also consider how the recommendations affect industries using the articles in respect of which protection is to be granted. Since relief, to be effective, should be afforded without delay, the Board is requested to complete its enquiries with all possible expedition and to submit a report as soon as the investigation of the claim of each industry is concluded."

A comparison of the conditions laid down by the Fiscal Commission with those embodied in the Resolution of November 3, 1945 shows a marked change in outlook and accent. In regard to the first condition, it is a question of interpretation by the Board itself how far the industry is run on sound business lines. As for the second condition, unless an industry suffers from inherent economic handicaps which cannot be remedied, there would be a *prima facie* case for keeping alive the industry until a fuller and more detailed examination is undertaken at a later stage as part of a long-term policy of protection. Even where an industry fails to establish a *prima facie* case based on this condition, the 1945 Resolution specifically asks the Board to examine whether the industry applying for protection is one "to which it is desirable in the national interest to grant protection or assistance" and whether "the probable cost of such protection or assistance to the community is not excessive." This stipulation is an improvement on the condition laid down by the Fiscal Commission and provides scope for a liberal interpretation since the term "national interest" must be interpreted broadly and not confined exclusively to military and defence considerations.

The Interim Tariff Board was appointed primarily for examining the cases of wartime industries although it did, in fact, consider the question of continuing protection to industries which had been established before the war and had received protection. The inquiries conducted by the Board were of a somewhat summary nature. The total number of cases referred to it was 49 of which 42 were considered by it during its term of office of a year and a half. Owing to the constitutional changes that were impending and the subsequent partition of the country, decisions on some of these recommendations of the Board were postponed.

RECONSTITUTED BOARD

The Tariff Board was reconstituted in November 1947 with Mr. G. L. Mehta as President, and Dr. H. L. Dey and Dr. B. V. Narayanaswamy Naidu as Members. Apart from reassigning the functions which had been exercised by the Interim Tariff Board, the reconstituted Board was entrusted with two additional functions, *viz.*, (1) to report to Government as and when required factors that lead to increase in the cost of production of Indian manufactured goods as against imported articles and (2) to advise Government, as and when required, on measures whereby internal production may be secured on the most economical cost basis.

Subsequently, by Resolution dated August 6, 1948, Government entrusted the Board with the following new functions:—

(1) to inquire into the cost of production of a commodity produced in the country and to determine its wholesale, retail or other prices; (2) to recommend to Government measures necessary for the protection of India's industries from dumping from abroad; (3) to undertake studies on the effects of *ad valorem* and specific duties and tariff valuations on various articles and the effects of tariff concessions granted to other countries; (4) to report to Government on combinations, trusts, monopolies and other restraints on trade, which may tend to affect the industries enjoying protection by restricting production or maintaining or raising prices, and to suggest ways and means of preventing such practices; and (5) to maintain a continuous watch over the progress of protected industries by conducting enquiries as and when necessary on the effect of the protective duties or other means of assistance granted and advise the Government regarding the necessity or otherwise of modifying the protection or assistance granted; to keep a careful watch to ensure that conditions attached to the grant of protection were fully implemented and that protected industries were being run efficiently.

WORK IN 1950

The policy of granting protection to industries was continued in 1950. In the case of a large number of industries whose protection was due to expire on March 31, 1950, it was decided, on the recommendations of the Tariff Board, to extend protection for periods varying from one to three years. In some cases protection was allowed to lapse. During the period the Board conducted investigations into the claims of 60 industries and also examined the question of continuance of protection to old established industries such as cotton textiles, iron and steel, paper and sugar.

During the year, the claims of milk powder, copper sulphate, machine screws and hydroquinine were referred to the Board. The claims for the grant of protection to a number of industries were examined by the Board and reports on them were submitted to Government. Consequently protection was granted to soda ash, glass and glassware, plastics, fountain pen ink, calcium lactate, sago globules and tapioca pearls, cotton textile machinery, and pencils.

In the case of soda ash, the Board recommended that protection should be for three years and the revenue duty should be converted into protective and increased to 30 per cent. *ad valorem* preferential and 40 per cent. *ad valorem* standard. It also favoured the grant of a subsidy of Rs. 1-8 per cwt. on the sales of soda ash produced by certain companies. Government accepted the recommendations subject to the duty being raised to 40 per cent. preferential and 50 per cent. standard and the subsidy being reduced to one rupee per cwt.

In respect of glass and glassware, as recommended by the Board, the revenue duty was converted into protective duty. As regards plastics, the recommendation of the Board to grant protection for a period of three years was accepted. The fountain-pen ink industry was granted protection for three years by converting the revenue duty into an equivalent protective duty. The Board's recommendation that the calcium lactate industry should be protected by converting the revenue duty into a protective duty for three years was accepted. As regards sago globules and tapioca pearls, protection was granted by imposing protective duties. In regard to the cotton textile machinery, a protective duty of 10 per cent. *ad valorem* was levied for a period of three years ending March 31, 1953 by converting the existing revenue duty of the same level into a protective duty.

A large number of industries had been granted protection upto March 31, 1950. In the case of following industries, their claims for continuing protection were examined and protection granted for periods varying from one to three years: Calcium chloride (2 years), Wood screws (2 years), Dry battery and Stearic acid and Oleic acid (December 1951), Cocoa powder and Chocolate, Electric motors and Plywood and Tea-chests (March 1953), Ferro-silicon and Non-ferrous metals (March 1951), Grinding wheels (December 1951) and Potassium bichromate, Sodium bichromate and Chrome compounds (March 1952).

It was decided on the Board's recommendations to discontinue protection to the following industries: Steel belt lacing, Potassium permanganate, Sugar, Iron-ammonium citrate and Potassium citrate, Cotton and Hair belting, Liver extract, Sterilised surgical catgut and Belt fastners.

Apart from the cases relating to protection, the Board was asked to inquire into the costs of production of certain commodities manufactured in the country and to determine their prices. The Board was asked to examine this problem in respect of all factories manufacturing superphosphates to enable Government to confirm the 'pool' price of Rs. 207 provisionally fixed by them. The Board was also asked to inquire into the prices of tin plates.

New Tariff Policy

The Fiscal Commission, which was set up in April 1949 to evolve new principles of protection, has submitted its report. Some of its main recommendations are the continuance of the present policy of protection to indigenous industries under new principles of protection, the setting up of a new permanent and statutory "Tariff Commission" with enlarged powers and functions, stricter enforcement of the obligations of protected industries, and the linking of fiscal policy with the fundamental objectives of economic policy.

The report of the Commission has been dealt with elsewhere. Suffice it to mention here that it came to the conclusion that protection to industries should continued to be granted on the following basis, namely, (1) defence and other strategic industries irrespective of cost on national considerations, (2) basic and key industries on the recommendations of the Tariff Authority, and (3) other industries having regard to the economic advantages consistent with the cost of protection.

On the basis of the recommendations of the Fiscal Commission, a Bill was introduced in Parliament seeking to establish a Tariff Commission as a permanent body. Pending the enactment of the law, the life of the present Tariff Board has been extended till August 1951.

President: Dr. H. L. Dey.

Members: Dr. B. V. Narayanaswamy Naidu; B. N. Adarkar.

THE ALCOHOL INDUSTRY

ALCOHOL has three uses. It can be used as a drink. That is the use for which it is best known. Second, it can be used for industrial purposes, for instance in the manufacture of a number of chemicals. Third, it can be used as a motor fuel, for the production of mechanical power, when we call it power alcohol.

Alcohol does not occur free in nature. It is produced by a slow decomposition of the juices of certain fruit specially grapes, of palms or other sugary substances when they are exposed to warm or moist atmosphere. The process is called fermentation, caused by the presence of certain micro-organisms, popularly called yeast. Commercially alcohol is obtained by the conversion of certain plant products called carbohydrates which include cellulose, starch and sugar. The cellulose and starch are first broken down to simpler sugary matter and then fermented by yeast to produce alcohol.

Potable Alcohol.—Let us now deal with alcohol as drink in more detail.. Three types of potable alcohol are produced in the country, beer, toddy, arrack and certain varie ties of 'foreign liquors.' Beer and toddy contain 2 to 10% alcohol while arrack and other liquors contain as much as 30 to 50%. Beer is produced from malted barley, and there are about 7 breweries in different parts of India and Pakistan. Arrack, a more popular drink, is obtained from the flowers of the mahua or mhowa tree or from fermented gur or molasses. But the most commonly used drink in the country is 'toddy' to give it its South Indian name. Toddy is obtained from the date palm. The palm is tapped and the juice is allowed to ferment.

There are, of course, the imported liquors but these are consumed chiefly by non-Asians and upper class Indians.

To pass to a statistical view of the liquor question, a great number of old pot, and coffey stills have always been in use but the major part of potable liquor is made in proper distilleries of which there are about 70 in India. Here is a table which gives a few facts about the production position in India.

Year	No. of Distilleries and Breweries	Production in million gallons	Capital invested in lakhs	No. of men employed	Cane-molasses produced in tons	No. of Sugar factories working
1946	71	12	350	3,000	3,50,000	145
1947	68	10·7	400	3,000	3,19,000	137
1948	68	10	400	3,000	4,12,000	135
1949	70	10	420	3,000	4,00,000	134

The figures for the imports of foreign liquors are given below :—

Year	Ale, beer, porter, stout in gallons	Spirits, liquors, wines, in gallons	Total gallons	Value of ale, beer, etc. in rupees	Value of spirits, etc. in rupees	Total Rs.
1946–47 ..	556,335	910,683	1,905,423	27,19,794	2,52,54,508	3,62,69,256
1947–48 ..	1,555,079	955,572	2,527,420	81,06,257	2,91,20,953	3,77,16,920
1948–49 ..	1,404,603	432,512	1,838,799	71,63,414	1,39,06,868	2,10,86,756
1949–50 ..	915,003	429,213	1,344,216	44,03,637	1,36,28,179	1,80,31,816
1950–51 .. (8 months)	658,001	221,241	879,242	31,05,240	60,93,656	91,98,896

So much for the production side. Now for the revenue. The States derive their excise revenue from taxes, fees and rents on local production and sale of liquors. Central Government derives its revenue from customs. Here are the customs figures in lakhs of rupees for India :—

Year	Ale, beer, porter and other fermented liquor	Spirits and liquors	Wines	Total
1947–48 ..	15·29	227.4	7·96	250·6
1948–49 ..	22.65	165·35	4·13	192·13
1949-50 ..	17·55	129·77	3·30	150·62
1950-51 .. (8 months)	11·51	82·53	1·54	95·58

It is proposed (Budget 1951) to impose a surcharge of 100% on the import duty on ale, beer, spirits and fermented liquor ; the expected addition to the revenue is Rs. 40 lakhs.

Prohibition.—Prohibition is now the accepted policy in India, and in every State there is either complete prohibition or partial prohibition which is to attain completion in a definite number of years. For instance, there is prohibition in about half of Madhya Pradesh. Madras went completely dry on October 1, 1948 and Bombay on April 1, 1950. Nine out of 49 districts in Uttar Pradesh are dry. Mysore expects to go completely dry in five years' time.

Prohibition is mainly enforced by the excise police but in certain States there are non-official voluntary bodies such as Vigilance Committees for detection and checking, or Prohibition Guards to help the regular Excise Police. In Bombay no liquor advertisements are allowed in newspapers or liquor scenes in films. Liquor shops have been converted into tea and refreshment hotels in Madras, while Bombay has opened centres where 'nira' is served in the place of liquor. In nearly every State one day or more have been declared as dry days.

Now that drunkenness is an offence in certain States punishable with imprisonment or fine or both the need for an objective test for intoxication arises. It has been suggested in this connection that it would be a good idea if we applied the same test as is being increasingly applied in the U.S.A. In some of the American courts intoxication is considered as present if the concentration of alcohol in the person's blood is ·15% or more. If the concentration is less than ·15% and more than .05% the person's general behaviour and other circumstances are considered. The U.S. Courts have recognized the admissibility of such evidence and devised means of making such tests compulsory. One Supreme Court has ruled that the test of intoxication is not the amount of alcohol drunk, but the amount of alcohol present in the blood. A second test is the detection and estimation of alcohol vapour in the breath.

It is fully recognized, however, that legal prohibition alone is not enough to stamp out the evil of drink. Something must be done to remove the causes that produce alcoholism. Among the major causes which produce alcoholism are poverty, overwork and a certain feeling of ennui. In the case of chronic alcoholics the cause may lie deeper still, in a pathological condition of the person's mind or body. Therefore to achieve any lasting result a policy of negative prohibition should be backed by a constructive effort to provide better food, better housing, better living conditions, greater facilities for recreation and the proper type of education for the younger people. The need for a constructive effort of this nature is fully realized and every State Government has its own programme for mass education and enlightenment in this direction.

The loss in the excise revenue will be partly made up by fresh taxation such as sales taxes, industrial profits taxes or the raising of duty on liquor as in U.P. And second, the palms and the mhowa trees no longer tapped for toddy would now be available for the production of power alcohol resulting in a genera increase of the country's fuel resources.

INDUSTRIAL ALCOHOL

We have already mentioned that alcoho used not only as a drink but also for industria purposes. Industrial alcohol is a very valuable material in the manufacture of chemicals like acetone, acetic acid, ether, chloroform, ethyl acetate, etc. It is also necessary as a solvent in the manufacture of fine chemicals, medical preparations, toilets, etc. Since the last war its importance if at all has increased. It is now essential in the manufacture of ammunition and of artificial rubber.

In 1946 there were as many as 33 plants capable of producing 12 million gallons of industrial alcohol. But the actual production was as low as 5,031,400 gallons in 1945-46, 3,734,600 in 1946-47, 4·9 million gallons in 1948 and 2·988 million gallons in 1949. The undivided Government of India's Panel on Fine Chemicals, Drugs and Pharmaceuticals estimated that the medical requirements of the sub-continent were a million gallons annually and industrial requirements 10 millions, a target which they said ought to be reached in 15 years time. To make this possible, it is argued, the first essential is to abolish the present excise duty on industrial alcohol and the second is to have a uniform policy for the country as a whole. Industrial alcohol should not cost more than a few annas a gallon. As it is it costs the distiller about eight annas to make it. When the producer's and middleman's profit is added the price will increase to a point where it becomes uneconomic to use it.

AMERICAN RECORD

In this connection the experience of U.S.A. may be helpful. Before the war the normal production in the U.S.A. was 100 million gallons. As more alcohol was needed to make smokeless powder for anti-aircraft shells and artificial rubber tyres for Army lorries the production rose to 600 millions between 1941 and 1945, as whisky distilleries were turned to the production of industrial alcohol. Synthetic alcohol was produced at 4 plants from natural and petroleum refinery gases. The point about synthetic alcohol is that it is cheaper than alcohol from molasses. Synthetic alcohol costs only 12 to 15 cents a gallon while molasses alcohol costs 40 cents when the price of molasses is 13·6 cents a gallon. The future lies therefore with synthetic alcohol.

In 1949 out of a production of 137·9 million gallons, which was 2 per cent greater than in 1948, 60 per cent was synthetic alcohol.

This trend is shown by the comparative analysis of production figures for 1941 and 1947:

Source.	Production of Ethyl Alcohol. Year 1941 Per cent.	Year 1947 Per cent.
Molasses	70.4	21·7
Ethyl Sulphate ..	23·4	53·5
Grain	5·9	16·0
Potatoes	..	5·2
Sulphite liquor ..	..	1·8
Miscellaneous ..	0·3	1·8
Total ..	100	100

In U.S.A., from March 1, 1947, all restrictions on the use of principal brewing grains, malt, corn and rice were lifted and brewers produced enough beer and ale to meet the rising demand, which rose to unprecedented levels. The federal excise and special taxes on beer, for the fiscal year 1947 amounted to 665 million dollars and the State and Local taxes and licence fees on beer was estimated at 180 million dollars.

After the war, most of the distilleries (226) employing about 30,000 men, reverted to beverage production. Out of the 350 to 360 million gallons capacity operated by Industrial Alcohol Producers not more than 200 were considered economic, since the price of grain was prohibitive. Lately the synthetic product has been making headway on the market with a productive capacity of more than 120 million gallons in 1949.

ETHYL ALCOHOL IN U.S.A.

(In millions of proof gallons).

Raw Material.	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947	1948	1949
Potatoes ..	..	..	..	..	..	3·7	12·8	17	..
Grain ..	17·5	38·5	107·8	206·2	281·6	104·9	39·7	53	..
Molasses ..	210·4	289·3	159·1	207·5	190·2	87·1	54·1	91*	..
Synthetic Ethyl Sulphate ..	69·9	90·6	96·7	113·7	111·6	127·5	133·3	165	..
Sulphite liquors ..	..	..	..	..	1·0	2·8	4·3	6	..
TOTAL ..	298·8	424·8	447·7	636·5	683·4	353·5	298·8	332	338

* Approximate.

INDUSTRIAL ALCOHOL

Here are the production figures in million gallons for U.S.A.

Year	Synthetic	Molasses	Grain	Import	Total
1943	56	81	300	12	449
1944	60	150	359	33	602
1945	112	190	281	..	683
1946	130	87	105	..	353
1947	137	39	54	31.9	298
1948	..	..	..	..	180·8
1949	..	..	..	..	192·3

And here are the consumption figures :—

Year	Military	Lend-Lease	Synth. rubber	Anti-Freeze	Civilian and indirect military	Total
1989	..	..	..	..	104	104
1940	..	..	..	..	130	130
1941	18	9	23	..	165	215
1942	46	25	30	..	128	229
1943	40	63	126	51	148	428
1944	27	60	330	32	160	609
1945	18·1	..	315·9	29·1	105·6	468·7
1946	0·9	..	62·7	23·0	104·0	190·6
1947	0·1	..	9·3	32·0	118·7	160·1
1948	0·1	..	0·4	30·7	119·8	151·0

We now come to the third use of alcohol, *i.e.* as motor fuel for the production of mechanical power. A great many countries in the world have to depend on imported petrol. So as a security measure some power alcohol is always being produced in nearly every big European country from local raw material such as surplus potatoes, wheat, molasses and so on.

India is a large importer of petrol. There is no reason therefore why India should not develop a power alcohol industry of her own especially when she is such a large producer of sugar. A great deal of the molasses which is a by-product in the manufacture of sugar is now going waste. Here are some figures which make the position clear. India had nearly 150 factories in 1942 producing sugar. Now out of the 485,000 tons of molasses produced in that year about 100,000 tons were fermented to make potable alcohol, and another 50,000 tons used as fuel or manure or for tobacco curing or for making inferior sweets. The rest, that is to say, as many as 3 5,000 tons were simply wasted.

But if all the wastage was to be used for the production of power alcohol a secure market had to be guaranteed to the producer. This meant some sort of legislation to compel the users of petrol to mix in a certain proportion power alcohol with petrol in the ratio 20 : 80. The Joint Power Alcohol Enquiry Committee of Uttar Pradesh and Bihar, the Indian Chamber of Commerce and the Indian Tariff Board were all recommending a scheme for the starting of a power alcohol industry before the war for it was clear that alcohol-petrol was superior as a fuel to neat petrol. But an appeal to the Government of India failed as it was frightened of antagonising oil interests. Some of the State Governments, however, went ahead. Between 1939 and 1942, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Bombay, Hyderabad and Mysore all passed appropriate legislation for the purpose of encouraging use of power alcohol, Mysore giving the lead in this matter. In 1946 there were 5 plants with a capacity of 2½ million gallons but the actual production was about a million gallons. In 1947 the number of plants increased to 9.

Production in India

1949 (million gallons)	1950 (Jan. to Nov'ber) (million gallons)
Power Alcohol 4·229	4·092
Industrial .. 2·988	2·951

Even this increased production falls far short of the country's needs and more intensive planned development is necessary as the report of the panel shows. A new plant started production early in 1951 at Nasik, with an annual capacity of a million gallons. The estimated production of 4·5 million gallons in 1950 has been much lower than the target of 7 million gallons due to shortage of molasses in western U.P., want of sufficient offtake at the distilleries in eastern U.P. and Bihar and the suspension of the Power Alcohol Act in Mysore. More power alcohol plants, smaller in capacity to suit the sugar factories and further improvements in fermentation practice are needed to step up output.

Power Alcohol should also be made as in U.S.A. from the wood sulphite liquors, a by-product of the paper factories proposed to be established.

Panel Report.—The report of the Panel appointed by the undivided Government of India to review the situation and make recommendations estimates that with the expected surplus of 430,000 tons of molasses 26 million gallons of alcohol can be produced. And out of 26 millions as many as 20 million could be used as fuel. They recommend therefore that all the existing plants should be modernized and if necessary expanded, and that 20 new plants with a capacity of ½ to 1 million gallons a year should be built. As far as possible all plants were to be fabricated locally. The capital cost of the 20 plants is estimated at Rs. 2 crores. 20% of this will have to be used on imports of equipment which cannot yet be made in India such as boilers, generators, air compressors, yeast separators and control instruments. The rest of the equipment could be made in India with the help of the existing personnel. It is not necessary to import foreign experts but it may be useful to send out technicians from here to study the working of foreign plants so that they might be able to employ the latest methods in Indian factories. Further recommendations are a reduction in the excise duty on power alcohol to enable the blended fuel to be sold at the same price as neat petrol, and the appointment of an Alcohol Commissioner to regulate matters relating to molasses and the price and distribution of alcohol.

The Panel also makes a few recommendations about industrial alcohol. It recommends, for instance, the development of subsidiary industries for making chemicals, solvents, food-yeast, dry-ice, fertilizers, potash, etc. from alcohol and the by-products, and the starting of a research organization, to investigate possibilities of expanding production and discover alternative sources and raw material and further applications of industrial alcohol. To encourage such application it suggests that industrial alcohol should be free from any tax. Finally, to encourage the growth of the whole industry the Panel recommends a general reduction in railway freights on molasses and alcohol.

After the division of the sub-continent the position is roughly as follows :—75% of cane-acreage, and 97% of sugar, molasses and alcohol remain in India and the balance goes to Pakistan. U.P. and Bihar produce 10 to 14 million gallons of alcohol. Out of this 2½ to 4 millions may be used for blended fuel in the States and the rest could be exported.

The Union Government has recently taken over responsibility for Central direction and control of the Power Alcohol Industry and in order to increase production raised the price payable for power alcohol from 11 annas to 14 annas per gallon, to distillers who are obliged to sell all the power alcohol to the State Governments.

THE CEMENT INDUSTRY

IN the history of Trade Associations in India, the cement industry provides an illustrious example of successful co-operative endeavour. Starting with small independent units, the industry passed through a period of vicissitudes before it could attain the present position of strength and solidarity.

The first venture in the manufacture of Portland Cement in India took place in 1904, in a small factory just outside Madras, but it quickly went out of business.

A few years later three new companies came into existence and laid the foundation of the industry as it exists today.

GROWTH OF INDUSTRY

Towards the end of the First Great War, the output of all cement factories was commandeered by the Government. The boom period which followed that war witnessed the springing up of a number of new cement factories. Most of these were erected within the geographical marketing areas of the existing works and internal competition set up an insensate scramble for business at any price, and for delivery over any distance, ignoring entirely the basic economic principle that as a cheap building material, it cannot carry heavy distribution of freight charges. This intense competition almost brought the industry to its knees. Three of the new companies went into liquidation and the shareholders lost between 2 and 2½ crores of rupees.

FORMATION OF ASSOCIATIONS

In 1925, following the result of an enquiry by the Tariff Board, the necessity for co-operation among the manufacturing units was clearly emphasised and as a result, an Association known as the Indian Cement Manufacturers' Association was formed. This proved to be a complete success as could be seen from the fact that during the four years of its existence not one single case of price cutting was recorded. Although described as a "Manufacturers' Association", its functions were only to fix and regulate selling prices. Each manufacturing company was a separate entity with its own selling arrangements and each was out to obtain as much business as it could possibly secure.

The Association was also responsible for the next step in co-operation. Its members agreed to a levy of 5 annas per ton on the sales to finance a joint service known as the Concrete Association of India which was formed in 1927 for the purpose of educating the public in the uses of cement and to provide free technical aid and advice to the consumer.

CEMENT MARKETING COMPANY

Inspired with a certain measure of confidence they took yet another step which was the formation of the Cement Marketing Company of India, Ltd., but, over this, negotiations were both delicate and protracted. No member company liked the idea of giving up control of its own sales; on the contrary, it wanted to secure as large a sales quota as possible. This latter point presented a very thorny problem and after considering various formulæ, an agreement was reached and a quota fixed based on the capacity of each.

In 1934, two new companies joined the pool adding a further tonnage. With the aid of the Concrete Association of India and a comprehensive publicity programme, sales were increased and during the Marketing Company's regime the average selling price of cement throughout the whole of the country was reduced by over 25%.

Its real charter was to operate the agreement entered into between the member companies and in this, there were a number of defects which were the cause of many uncertainties and suspicions. The quota was fixed rigidly but there was nothing in the agreement to prevent any company from enlarging its works to any extent it deemed fit and it was soon apparent to all that provision for future expansion had to be undertaken.

ASSOCIATED CEMENT COMPANIES

It was to put an end to all doubts and uncertainties about the future that the late Mr. F. E. Dinshaw mooted the merger scheme, its object being to make and deliver cement as cheaply as possible through rationalised production and distribution. This brought about the fusion of all the Indian cement manufacturing companies then in operation (with the exception of the Sone Valley Cement Co. Ltd.) into one unit known as the Associated Cement Companies Ltd., in 1936 whose Managing Agents are Cement Agencies Ltd. The benefit that accrued to the Industry by the development of new sites taken over from member companies at suitable centres was passed on to the consumer by way of reduction in selling prices. This reduction resulted in an increased off-take which made it possible to make further reductions. Thus, there was an average total reduction all over India of about Rs. 10 per ton from, 1930 to 1936, which, resulted in the consumers benefiting to the extent of crores of rupees.

The policy of the cement companies which eventually merged into the Associated Cement Companies, aimed at the establishment of a great national industry on sound business lines. Foreign competition was reduced to a minimum and as sales increased prices were reduced systematically each year. This was along the lines recommended by the Tariff Board and has definitely led to the advantages envisaged by them, *viz.*, efficient running, cheaper production, low distribution costs and lower selling price to public.

DALMIA GROUP

The Industry was, however, again affected when, in 1938, the Dalmia Group of Companies which had come into being began to compete with the Associated Companies. Happily, this state of affairs did not last long, and by the end of 1940, an agreement was concluded between these two major groups to market their output through a central organization. The Cement Marketing Co. of India, Ltd., was again brought into operation. Prices were reduced further and thereafter stabilised at an economical level restoring the industry again to a healthy footing.

The Cement Marketing Company then controlled and managed the sales and distribution of all the cement manufactured by the Associated Cement Companies and the Dalmia Group of Companies, the former having 12 factories in operation and the latter five. The output of all these factories represented about 85% of the whole industry as there were four other cement companies operating independently.

EFFECTS OF WAR

As on other industries, the recent war has had a vast effect on cement. With the rise in the cost of all materials required for the manufacture and packing of cement, production cost naturally increased. To off-set this, in part, the price of cement had to be raised but it was still maintained at a very reasonable level, the rate being controlled by the Industries and Civil Supplies Department. Even with the increase allowed by the Government after prolonged examination, the price of cement today compares very favourably with the price of other building materials as most of them have gone up by over 200 to 400 per cent.

Just before and for some time after the outbreak of hostilities, the demand from export markets both for Government and public use began to increase, and India eventually became the supply centre of cement to the Middle and Far East. The internal demand similarly increased. Practically 80% of the total output was taken by Government and the balance was strictly rationed for essential repairs. With the cessation of hostilities, the proportion of Government demand fell considerably but the total demand both of the Government and the public increased enormously.

In March 1948 the two groups the Associated Cement and Dalmia's separated by mutual consent owing to disagreement about price. They now market their products separately.

BENEFITS

The part which the cement industry plays in the welfare of the country may not be fully appreciated. Not only does it afford employment to thousands of men in the factories but it is also one of the largest consumers of Indian coal. The jute industry is also benefited because over 40 million jute bags are used annually for packing purposes. Then, there is the large freight revenue accruing to the Railways by the transport of coal, gunny bags and cement estimated at some crores per annum.

The progress which has been made has been largely due to the energy and enterprise of the Cement Marketing Company and the Concrete Association of India in educating the country in the uses of cement. Branch offices are maintained throughout India with a staff of over a hundred engineers, overseers and skilled masons who give technical assistance to cement users.

FUTURE DEVELOPMENT

At the time of the partition of India in August 1947 there were 18 cement factories in the Indian Union with a total capacity of 2.1 million tons per annum. During the last three years a number of cement factories in India expanded their capacity and three new factories were erected at Jamnagar (Saurashtra), Tirunelveli (South India) and Kottayam (Union of Travancore-Cochin), resulting in a total capacity of 2·9 million tons per annum.

Of the three new factories which were under construction in 1950 at Sevalia (Bombay State), Sawai Madhopur (Rajasthan) and Raj Gangpur (Orissa) the first, *viz.* Seyalia was inaugurated in 1951 April. With the completion of the other two factories and the extension to the existing ones it is expected that the total productive capacity is likely to be about 4 million tons by the end of 1952.

With the restoration of stability, the cement industry has retained its national importance in the sense that it is one of the few commodities that can enter into every one of the main schemes of national programme, *viz.*, communications, irrigation and agricultural development generally and proper housing of the working classes. The cement industry owing to the urgency of the demand placed on it in the immediate post-war years and the orderly planning of future development has received due consideration from Government.

THE CHEMICAL INDUSTRY

FOR purposes of industrial production, chemicals fall easily into one of two major groups : (*a*) Heavy Chemicals, and (*b*) Fine Chemicals. Heavy chemicals are produced in enormous tonnages and at a low cost, and are consumed almost wholly in industrial and agricultural operations. The term "Heavy Chemicals" is applied usually to substances such as the common acids, alkalies, fertilizer, etc., which are the foundation of the entire chemical industry. Their industrial utility is determined by their use of processing the raw materials of other industries manufacturing essential commodities, such as textiles, paper, soap, glass, leather, kerosene, motor spirit, lubricating oils, etc. Thus, while the cost of the basic chemicals will undoubtedly influence the development of the consumer industries, there must be an all-round development of the latter to enable the heavy chemicals industry to be placed on a sound footing.

Fine chemicals, on the other hand, are manufactured generally in relatively small amounts since purity is important; their production requires great skill and care in each operation under accurately controlled conditions. In this category are included photographic materials, drugs and pharmaceutical products, paints, varnishes and pigments, dyestuffs, etc.

The total capital invested in the chemical industry is about Rs. 8 crores representing hardly 2·5 per cent. of the total capital invested in industrial enterprise. It is thought that rapid expansion of the chemical industry in the immediate future is possible only with the help of imported equipment. Broadly stated there is sufficient technical personnel available in the country, but certain types of chemical industry require technicians from abroad. If the heavy chemical industry in India has not developed to the extent to which expansion has taken place in the U.S. and U.K. that is because major consuming industries such as plastics and rayon have not yet been firmly established in this country.

HEAVY CHEMICALS

With the notable exceptions of borax, nitre and elemental sulphur, the heavy chemicals do not occur in nature, and they have, therefore, to be manufactured from naturally occurring raw materials. The names of the various heavy chemicals manufactured in India together with the details of the production are given below :—

Chemicals	Average pre-war (1935-40) figures of production	Production, 1946-47	Target estimated for next five years	Main uses
Sulphuric Acid ..	26,000	89,000 (1949)	50,000	Chief basic chemical
Aluminium Sulphate and alums	8,500	17,000	38,000	Paper, textiles, water treatments
Copper sulphate ..	..	1,000	2,000	Insecticide, fungicide
Ferrous sulphate ..	600	2,000	2,500	Textiles, inks, paints
Magnesium sulphate	3,500	3,500	4,000	Sizing, pharmacy
Sodium sulphate ..	1,000	2,000	4,500	Paper, textiles, dyeing, pharmacy
Sodium hydrosulphite	..	..	3,000	Textiles, sugar, gur
Sodium sulphide ..	..	100	7,000	Dyeing, paper tanning
Sodium thiosulphate..	..	400	1,000	Photography, leather, textiles
Hydrochloric acid ..	350	2,500	3,000	Textiles, galvanizing, preparation of other chemicals
Calcium chloride ..	..	1,000	2,000	Refrigeration, road-making
Magnesium chloride ..	6,000	7,000	..	Textiles, paper, cement
Zinc chloride	..	300	3,000	Sizing, flux, dry cells
Nitric acid	500	2,750	4,000	Gold refining
Ammonia	..	1,500	12,000 to 15,000	Fertilisers, refrigeration, medicine
Ammonia carbonate and bicarbonate ..	..	Inadequate	600	Medicine, baking powder
Ammonia chloride ..	..	600 (1948)	4,000	Flux, dry cells, sundry trades
Caustic soda	1,500	6,200 (1949)	133,000	Soap, textiles, paper, other sundry trades
Soda ash	Small	28,500 (1948)	270,000	Glass, textiles, paper, silicates, washing, flux, etc.
Bleaching powder ..	..	2,800 (1948)	10,000	Textiles, paper, public health
Chlorine	..	1,800 (1948)	50,000	Water treatment, bleaching powder, chlorinated products
Potassium chlorate ..	..	2,000	3,500	Matches
Sodium bicarbonate ..	Small	1,500	10,000 to 15,000	Medicine, food products, fire extinguishers
Sodium cyanides and ferrocyanides ..	..	..	..	Extraction of gold and silver
Sodium silicate ..	..	4,000	..	Lining, silk, soaps
Sodium and potassium dichromates ..	..	3,500	5,000	Textiles, leather, matches
Calcium carbide ..	..	..	7,000	Oxy-acetylene welding, mining operations

Imports of the following chemicals is banned since domestic production is sufficient :—

Alums, Aluminium Sulphate Ferric, Bichromates, Sodium and Potassium, Sodium Sulphate, Sodium Thiosulphate, Sodium Sulphite, anhydrous Sodium Bisulphite, Sodium silicate, Sodium and Potassium acetate Sodium and Potassium citrate, Calcium chloride, Chlorine liquid, Chrome Alum, Chrome Salts and Chromic acid, Ferrous Sulphate, Hydrochloric acid, Sulphuric acid, Nitric acid, Iron and Potassium bromide, Magnesium sulphate, (Epsom Salt), Magnesium chloride, Magnesium carbonate heavy, Naphthalene.

The trend of production of some other heavy chemicals is given below :—

Chemical	1948 tons	1949 tons
Alum	2,621	5,000
Alumina Ferric ..	12,590	15,500
Epsom salt	2,876	3,500
Copperas	520	?
Copper Sulphate ..	425	500
Acid Hydrochloric ..	1,747	2,450
Acid Nitric	1,309	1,500
Sodium Sulphide ..	1,116	533
Zinc chloride	?	166
Calcium chloride ..	943	?
Magnesium chloride ..	7,705	10,373

The output of chlorine liquid and bleaching powder has been generally upward but that of bichromates has declined. In the case of liquid chlorine imports declined from 682,235 lbs. in 1938-39 to 654 lbs. in 1949-50 and the Government of India have decided that no import is now necessary. Imports of bleaching powder have halved from 10,656 tons in the pre-war year to 5,513 tons in 1949-50. In the case of bichromate there is a surplus capacity and though the production is downward the industry has built up a valuable export market. The following are the details of production :—

Years	Chlorine Liquid tons	Bleaching Powder tons	Bichromates tons
1946	1,500	2,000	2,081
1947	1,706	2,550	2,306
1948	1,800	2,836	2,939
1949	2,649	2,468	1,720
1950	3,964	3,309	1,955

Calcium Chloride.—There are two manufacturers of calcium chloride of commercial quality. Their capacity is 1,500 tons but the production has declined from 818 tons in 1946 to 229 tons in 1949. The Tariff Board made a report on the claim of the industry for protection early in 1950 and Government passed orders extending the protection up to March 31, 1952. As regards the Board's suggestion that imports of calcium chloride should be allowed only after taking into account the domestic production Government observed that this was acceptable for the duration of the import control instituted mainly for the purpose of balance of payments consideration.

Stearic Acid and Oleic Acid.—At the beginning of 1947 there were three units producing stearic acid and oleic acid. Since then one firm suspended manufacture owing to foreign competition and another unit expected to commence production on a large scale has not started production. The main raw materials are tallow, lime or caustic soda and sulphuric acid. The Tariff Board had estimated the demand for undivided India in 1947 at 1,000 tons for stearic acid and 500 tons for oleic acid. The Board placed the demand in 1950, when it undertook the next inquiry, at 700 tons and 600 tons respectively. Against a rated capacity of 1,300 tons the annual productions varied between 81·5 tons and 25 tons in respect of stearic acid and 8·2 tons and 1 ton in the case of oleic acid. Government have extended the protection up to December 31, 1951 and have also accepted the Board's recommendation in regard to taking indigenous production into account before granting licences when it reaches half the domestic needs. Government have also accepted the Board's recommendation that the industry does not need any subsidy.

Potassium Permanganate.—About 200 tons of potassium permanganate represents a fair estimate of the annual needs of the Indian Union for the next three years. According to the Tariff Board's report submitted in 1950 the total capacity of the indigenous industry is only 50 tons and the actual production is about 10 per cent. of the domestic demand. Government have accepted the Board's recommendations in respect of replacing the existing protective duty by a revenue duty to meet their requirements of potassium permanganate from the indigenous manufacture.

SULPHURIC ACID

The production of sulphuric acid has risen four-fold since 1938-39 during the last ten years (see below) the figure for 1950 being about 102,480 tons. Even with this substantial increase in the production figures, our per capita consumption of sulphuric acid is very far below that in the U.S.A., being 0·45 lbs., and 187 lbs., respectively. The pre-war production figures of hydrochloric and nitric acids were 350 tons and 500 tons per annum, respectively ; their production increased substantially during the period of the World War II and, at present, nearly 2,500 tons of hydrochloric acid and 2,750 tons of nitric acid are manufactured annually.

Here are the production figures for sulphuric acid :—

	Thousands of tons.
1937-38	26·8
1938-39	25·6
1939-40	30·7
1940-41	..
1941-42	43·0
1942-43	40·7
1943-44	59·0
1944-45	65·0
1945-46	..
1946	60
1947	60
1948	80
1949	99·5
1950	102·5

There are now 40 firms, which can produce about 150,000 tons of sulphuric acid in 43 units. Of these, 11 are contact process units, mostly installed in the post-war period. Four units are under erection which would give an additional capacity of 30,000 tons. The percentage of the total production that various industries use, are roughly Chemical 40, Fertilizers 40, Metals 5, Cotton Textile 5, Mineral Oil 2, Leather 1 and Engineering and other industries 7.

Manufacture.—Sulphuric acid is manufactured from elemental sulphur, and since the small quantities available at Koh-i-Sultan have proved uneconomical and we have no known deposits of iron pyrites the sulphuric acid industry is almost entirely dependent on imported sulphur. During the pre-war period (1935-40), India and Pakistan used to import about 28,800 tons of sulphur annually at a cost of about Rs. 100 per ton. In the financial year 1949-50 imports of sulphur totalled 40,000 tons at a cost of Rs. seventy lakhs. Imports thereafter became rather difficult owing to heavy stockpiling throughout the world but India managed to import 55,326 tons valued at Rs. 113 lakhs in the twelve following months. By April 1951 the scarcity became so acute that the United States as the major world producer introduced the quota system. India's annual needs for manufacturing sulphuric acid are placed at 60,000 tons.

In Western countries where native sulphur deposits are not available, the acid is manufactured as far as possible from other sulphur-bearing materials locally available. For instance, sulphuric acid was manufactured in Germany from gypsum or anhydrite, with cement as a by-product. In Great Britain, the spent oxide from gas works is used to recover its sulphur content in the form of sulphuric acid. Also, sulphurous gases obtained in the smelting industries, involving the roasting of iron and copper pyrites and copper glance, are utilized in many countries as a source of sulphuric acid. There appears to be no reason why all the above-mentioned methods should not be practised in India to make it at least partly self-sufficient with regard to this basic chemical.

Other Methods.—Further, in countries with meagre sulphur resources, it is considered desirable that industries should become independent of sulphuric acid as far as possible, with a view to avoiding the dependence of important chemical industries on imported sulphur. For instance, ammonium sulphate and superphosphate among fertilizers, and hydrochloric and nitric acids among the chief heavy chemicals, are manufactured now by processes which do not involve the use of sulphuric acid. Thus, ammonium sulphate is made from gypsum and ammonia, phosphatic fertilizers by the use of electrical energy, hydrochloric acid by burning chlorine in hydrogen, and nitric acid by the oxidation of synthetic ammonia. In India it may not be possible to apply all the above-mentioned methods immediately. For instance, the manufacture of phosphatic fertilizers by the electrical method might not be possible for some time to come. Until this is done, the production of large quantities of superphosphate will require a large amount of sulphuric acid, because the manufacture of this fertilizer must go hand in hand with that of ammonium sulphate which is now being produced to some extent from gypsum and ammonia, while another larger plant is under erection according to the plans prepared by the Fertilizer Mission. Similarly, the expansion of the already existing textiles, paint and metallurgical industries, and the starting of the rayon and dyestuffs industries, will take up huge quantities of this acid. It is surmized that the two latter industries alone will require about 30,000 tons and 20,000 tons per annum, respectively, of sulphuric acid in the initial stages.

ALKALIES

As a heavy chemical, caustic soda is of equal importance in the soap, paper, mercerized cotton, explosives, dyestuffs, vegetable oil, rayon, and other chemical industries. At present India's requirements of caustic soda are placed at 63,500 tons distributed as under : Soap 27,000 tons, Textile industry 15,000 tons, Paper 9,000 tons, Vanaspati 1,500 tons, Rayon 5,000 tons, Chemical 1,500 tons, Miscellaneous industries 3,000 tons and Government 1,500 tons. Since 1948 two more units have started production, and the six units had in 1951 an installed capacity of 19,068 tons. There are certain units which are producing their own requirements of caustic soda, and this capacity would come to some 3,000 tons.

Owing to heavy imports from abroad at competitive rates it was rather difficult for indigenous manufacturers to expand their output in the initial stage ; but import restrictions in 1949, a world shortage in the latter half of 1950 and the elimination of foreign competition pushed up the production trend as will be seen from below :—

	Tons
1946	2,900
1947	3,314
1948	4,383
1949	6,303
1950	10,846
1951	15,000 (Estimated)

There is a general tendency abroad to change over from the lime-soda to the electrolytic process for the manufacture of caustic soda, as there is an increasing demand in the synthetic organic industry for the by-product chlorine obtained by the latter method. In India, however, there is every danger that all the chlorine may not find suitable outlets in the immediate future. Hence, the decision to set up electrolytic caustic soda plants must be considered in relation to the possibility of the utilization of the by-product chlorine. Among the possible uses for chlorine may be mentioned the manufacture of hydrochloric acid, bleaching powder, hypochlorite solution, chlorinated rubber products, chlorinated plastics, D.D.T., etc

India's requirements of soda ash are about 124,000 tons composed of glass industry 40,000 tons, sodium silicate 15,000 tons, textiles 9,000 tons, paper 5,000 tons, chemicals 6,000 tons, washing 44,000 tons and miscellaneous 5,000 tons. The present installed capacity is 54,000 tons ; but until 1949 hardly one-fourth was used. The production trend is given below :—

Year	Tons
1946	12,000
1947	13,624
1948	29,150
1949	17,918
1950	43,790

The chief difficulty in bridging this gap between production and domestic consumption is that of obtaining industrial salt at a reasonable price. The ideal location for the soda ash industry is naturally the coalfields which are situated a long way off from the Western coast, where cheap sea salt is available or from the salt-beds of Rajasthan. The cost of transport is the principal limiting factor in the development of the soda ash industry.

OTHER INORGANIC CHEMICALS

The World War II gave considerable impetus to the production of several heavy chemicals in the country. For instance the manufacture of important industrial chemicals, such as copper sulphate, sodium sulphide, anhydrous ammonia, bleaching powder, chlorine, dichromates, etc., was started, and the production of salts, such as aluminium sulphate, iron sulphate, etc., increased to a considerable extent. There was, however, no planning in these endeavours, and in some cases the quality of the product was also not sufficiently high.

India has stepped her installed capacity for the manufacture of liquid chlorine from four units (2,000 tons) to six units with an installed capacity of 6,535 tons. This is more than sufficient to meet all internal demands, but the difficulty is in transport. Long distances are involved and stand in the way of free transport of liquid chlorine from the factories to places of consumption. The progress of production has, therefore, been slow as will be seen from the following : 1946—1,500 tons, 1947—1,706 tons, 1948—1,800 tons, 1949—2,649 tons, 1950—3,970 tons. Recently, a firm has planned the production of high test hypochlorite.

There are three units for manufacturing bleaching powder with an installed capacity of 5,160 tons ; but it is not being fully used. The details of output are given below : 1946—2,000 tons, 1947—2,550 tons, 1948—2,836 tons, 1949—2,468 tons, 1950—3,309 tons.

From the bitterns in the manufacture of salt, India has now an established capacity for the manufacture of 200 tons of bromides. The internal consumption has been computed to be 60 tons. There is ample scope for catering to the export market.

Another by-product in the manufacture of salt is magnesium chloride. India is not only able to meet her internal demands but has been exporting magnesium chloride to various countries including U.K.

The demand for magnesium sulphate, alum, etc., is being fully met. There is also some export trade in these chemicals.

The match industry in India has expanded phenomenally during the last few years. At present the country's aggregate capacity for the production of matches is 40 million gross boxes. We are also having a flourishing export trade in matches. To cater to the needs of the match industry, the country requires a production of 2,000 tons of potassium chlorate.

The anhydrous ammonia being manufactured at present is converted almost entirely into ammonium sulphate, and very little is thus left over for refrigeration, medicine, and other uses. It should be possible to obtain about 300 tons per annum of anhydrous ammonia for these uses when the new plant for the manufacture of ammonium sulphate from gypsum and ammonia,

now under construction, starts functioning. The bleaching powder manufactured at present is poor in quality, and the defect is attributed to low quality lime. It is necessary therefore to find deposits of and utilize high quality lime so that the available chlorine in the product is at least 30 per cent. Magnesium chloride and sulphate are now manufactured on the West Coast from sea and sub-soil bitterns. Large quantities of the former were exported before the War (about 1,300 tons in 1939-40), and it is gratifying to note that the exports have now ncreased to 3,200 tons.

Calcium carbide is a very important heavy chemical both in peace as well as in war. Its manufacture has not been undertaken so far in India due largely to difficulties in finding a suitable site where coal and high-grade lime occur together, and a cheap supply of electricity is also available. It is unfortunate that not much progress has been made in the erection of the 5,000 ton plant that was to be installed in Bihar.

FERTILIZERS

Food is one of the three dire necessities of human existence. To maintain crop yields in any established agriculture, it is essential to add the plant-food elements (nitrogen, phosphorus and potassium) to the soil year after year. The question of chemical fertilizers is thus of major importance in India with its rapidly increasing rate of population.

Pre-war annual production of ammonium sulphate and superphosphate was about 30,000 and 2,000 tons respectively. The output of superphosphates went up to 51,700 tons in 1950. There are at present 14 units with a capacity of 134,000 tons. The main raw material is rock phosphate for which Moroces is the chief source. The production of ammonium sulphate was stepped up from 45,900 tons in 1949 to 48,000 tons in 1950. Six firms are engaged in this industry, their installed capacity being 78,000 tons.

The figures for production and imports of some of the important fertilizers are given in the following table. All figures are in tons per annum :

Fertilizer	Average pre-war (1935-40) figures of		Production 1946-47	Production			Target estimated for next five years
	Production	Imports		1948	1949	1950	
Ammonium phosphate	..	3,750	..	35,210	45,935	47,308	79,180
Ammonium sulphate	30,000	63,500	26,000	..	..	..	135,751
Potassium chloride	small	2,500	500	..	..	..	2,989
Potassium nitrate	6,500	..	15,000	..	..	..	..
Superphosphate	2,000	7,000	..	21,358	46,724	52,432	140,000
Fish manures, etc.	..	2,100	..	..	..	..	5,068

NOTE : Where figures are not available the space is left blank.

It has been estimated that to provide a well-balanced diet for the whole population, the existing production of agricultural food products should be stepped up by the following margins : Cereals (10 per cent.) ; Pulses (20 per cent.) ; Oils and Fats (250 per cent.) ; Fruits (50 per cent.) ; and Vegetables (100 per cent.). It has also been estimated that food production can be increased by about 25 per cent. if about 400,000 tons of ammonium sulphate are used annually. To produce that amount plant at Belagula (capacity 7,500 tons per annum) has been working for some years and is being further expanded.

The end of 1950 saw the virtual completion of heavy constructional work on Government fertilizer factory which, when on full production, will absorb 600 tons of coke and 1,800 tons of gypsum a day. The total outlay will be of about Rs. 23 crores and the first quantity of usable ammonium sulphate will be produced in the third quarter of 1951.

FINE CHEMICALS

The term " fine chemicals " is applied usually to substances such as photographic materials, drugs and pharmaceutical products, paints, pigments and varnishes, and dyestuffs. The raw materials necessary for the fine chemicals industry are derived from both inorganic and organic heavy chemicals, the former of which were dealt with in the preceding pages. Among the organic chemicals, by far the most important are coal and wood distillation products, fermentation products, and aliphatic and aromatic synthetic chemicals. Only a few of these organic chemicals are produced in India and their figures for production and imports, targets for their future production, and main uses are presented in the following table. Figures for production are for the year 1946-47 but there has been very little change in these industries since then. All the figures are in tons per annum except where otherwise stated.

Chemical	Average pre-war (1935-40) figures of		Production		Target estimated for the next five years	Main uses
	Production	Imports	1946-47	1950		
Acetic acid	unknown	350	300	..	17,000	Rayon, white lead, lead acetate, dyeing, rubber
Acetone	..	25	1,000	..	13,000	Solvent, explosives
Ethyl alcohol (gallons)	750,000	..	9,000,000	..	26,000,000	Power, solid fuels, pharmaceuticals
Formaldehyde	..	200	60	..	1,000	Textiles, disinfectant, preservative
Methanol	small	..	60	..	1,200	Solvent, denaturant
Carbon disulphide	nil	..	nil		8,760	Rayon
Glycerine	650	180	2,100	1,800	5,000	Pharmacy, explosives
Lead acetate	nil	..	small	..	..	Pigments, waterproofing, textiles
Oxalic acid	nil	200	36	..	..	Dyeing, printing
Urea	nil	..	nil	..	10,000	Plastics, fertilizer
Benzene (gals.)	..	..	1,200,000	..	..	Solvent
Benzol (gals.)	..	..	2,400,000	..	..	Solvent
Creosote oil (gals.)	..	..	500,000	..	..	Insecticide
Cresylic acid	..	..	60	..	..	..
Naphthalene	..	..	600	52	..	Disinfectant, etc.
Phenol	..	40	25	29	1,000	Disinfectants, plastics

The Tariff Board's inquiry in 1950 into the claim for protection of fine chemicals industry was confined to calcium lactate, iron-ammonium citrate, potassium citrate and sodium citrate. The principal raw material for manufacturing calcium lactate is lactic acid produced by the fermentation of products like potato starch, molasses, jaggery or milk whey. Lime is required for neutralising the lactic acid to form calcium-lactate. On the other hand, citrate are manufactured by combination of citric acid with various chemicals. Of the latter ferrous sulphate sulphuric acid, nitric acid, caustic potash, potassium carbonate, supercel and activated carbon are imported.

According to the Board's report submitted in the middle of 1950, there are six factories engaged in the production of calcium lactate, iron-ammonium citrate, potassium citrate and sodium citrate. The total rated capacity for the production of calcium lactate is 78 tons a year while for iron-ammonium citrate it is 79 tons. The aggregate capacity for both potassium citrate and sodium citrate has been placed at 345.66 tons. The actual output is hardly one-fifth of the capacity.

The annual demand for the next three years has been estimated by the Board at 60 tons for calcium lactate, 80 tons for iron-ammonium citrate, 200 tons for potassium citrate and 50 tons for sodium citrate. Government have, on the Board's recommendation, converted the 36 per cent. standard and 26 per cent. preferential revenue duty on calcium lactate into a protective duty.

Photographic Materials.—The basic chemicals required for the photographic industry are (*i*) gelatin, silver halides and sensitizers in the coating of film, plate and paper base, and (*ii*) hypo sodium sulphite metal, hydroquinone and chrome alum in the processing stages. Of these chemicals, the four former are not being manufactured in India. There was no production of sodium thiosulphate and sodium sulphite during the pre-war years, but due to the impetus given by World War II, production of these chemicals was started and their present annual output is about 800 tons and 300 tons respectively. The output of potassium bromide, sodium bromide and hydroquinone was stepped up from 18 tons, 5 tons and nil in 1948 to 36 tons, 14 tons and 7,471 lbs., in 1950 respectively.

The manufacture of gelatin for photographic purposes is a comparatively easy matter, particularly as we have abundant raw materials for its manufacture by way of hides, skins, bones, etc. The manufacture of potassium bromide and liquid bromine has been started by one concern on the west coast of India, but the quantities produced are very small though they are enough to meet the domestic demand. The manufacture of sensitizers, most of which are complex organic compounds, will perhaps present some difficulties.

Pre-war imports of raw film base into India were enormous, the film industry alone consuming some 80 million ft. per annum. The Celluloid Industries Panel has recommended the installation of a factory for manufacturing 50 million sq. ft. of all types of raw film, and this should synchronize with the manufacture of gelatin, silver halides, sensitizers and other photographic materials in adequate quantities.

Drugs and Pharmaceutical Products.—Prior to World War II, India was almost entirely dependent on imports for the major portion of its requirements of drugs and medicines. The pharmaceutical industry developed considerably during the war period but is still in its infancy. During the war, India's requirements of galencials were entirely met from indigenous sources. Surgical dressings, vaccines and sera, rubber goods, laboratory stains and chemicals were produced on a large scale. Of the drugs of natural origin, Morphine, Codeine, Strychnine, Caffeine, Ephedrine, Santonin, Quinine were produced in sufficient quantities not only for meeting internal demands, but, in some cases, for purposes of export. Synthetic drugs manufactured at present in India are mostly made out of imported chemicals, and, to place the industry on a sound footing, it is of fundamental importance that the fine chemicals necessary as raw materials are produced in requisite quantities. The figures for production of certain natural vegetable drugs and synthetic chemicals, and the targets for their expansion, are given in the following table. These figures are for the year 1946-47, and there has been only a moderate improvement thereafter and in some industries no improvement. In the case of penicillin efforts are being made to instal a plant near Bombay which will produce 105 million units in the next 2 years and four times as much in the next five years. All the figures are in lbs. per annum except where otherwise stated.

Twenty-one factories with an installed capacity of 1,460,000 lbs. are engaged in the production of liver extract oral. Though the capacity is static during the past three years, production has risen progressively from 226,337 lbs. in 1948 to 247,187 lbs. in 1949 and further to 300,000 tons in 1950. The capacity for manufacturing liver extract injectible is 23·8 million C.C. ; but the actual output for the past three years 7·7 million C.C., 9·7 million C.C. and 11 million C.C.

Many new lines have been added recently to the manufacturing programme. Among them may be mentioned anti-tubercular drugs, anti-leprosy drugs and anæsthetics. Consequently exports are upward and imports downward in the post-war period.

Drug	Average production figure in 1946-47	Target recommended for the next five years
Caffeine	20,000	30,000
Emetin	nil	2,000
Ephedrine	3,000	5,000
Morphine	2,000	3,000
Pyrethrum	nil	50,000 tons of dried pyrethrum flowers
Quinine	100,000	2,000,000
Santonin	2,000	3,000
Strychnine	15,000	16,000
Carbarsone	2,000	50,000
D.D.T.	very little	30,000 tons
Mepacrine	unknown	160,000
Penicillin	unknown	1,200,000 million Oxford units
Streptomycin	nil	As much as possible
Sulpha drugs	unknown	500,000
Sulpharsphenamine and Neoarsphenamine	unknown	50,000
Vitamin A	3,500 gallons	1,000,000 gallons
Anæsthetic ether	120,000	....
Calcium gluconate	500	....
Chloral hydrate	200	....
Chlorosulphonic acid	25	....
Potassium permanganate	36,000	....
Tannic acid	13,450	....

The raw materials from which drugs and pharmaceutical products are derived consist of various inorganic chemicals, coal and wood distillation products, fermentation products, petroleum products, animal and vegetable products, and aliphatic and aromatic synthetic chemicals. It should be possible to produce sufficient quantities of drugs and pharmaceutical products in India in the very near future if (*i*) the heavy chemicals industry is expanded, (*ii*) the manufacture of intermediates from the coal tar distillation products is immediately taken in hand, and (*iii*) the manufacture of adequate quantities of solvents of proper quality is well organized.

Paints and Varnishes.—There are at present 53 paint factories and 5 pigment and colour manufacturers in India. Between 1948 and 1950 fifteen units came into existence and the installed capacity for standard types of paints and enamels was consequently stepped up from 50,000 tons in 1947 to 65,000 tons in 1950. The actual output, however, remained almost static around 30,000 tons. The raw materials employed in the manufacture of (*a*) paints and enamels, and (*b*) varnishes and lacquers, are pigments, drying oils and driers, solvents and thinners and naturally occurring and synthetic resins. With the exception of synthetic resins, all the other raw materials are available in the Indian sub-continent in sufficient quantities. The figures for the 1946-47 production and proposed targets for the various major items are given in the following table. All the figures are in tons per annum except where otherwise stated.

Item		Average production figure in 1946-47	Target recommended for next five years
Paints and Enamels		50,000	100,000
Varnishes : All types		2,500,000 gals.	no target proposed
Superior		135,000 gals.	300,000 gals.
Pigments : Lithopone		....	5,000
Zinc oxide		4,000	6,000
White lead, red lead, lithrage and lead chrome		4,500	8,000
Titanium whites		....	3,000
Carbon black		....	500
Aluminium powder		250	500
Mercuric and cuprous oxides ..		....	500

Dyestuffs.—In the days prior to World War I, the vegetable dyestuff indigo was produced in large quantities in India, and was actually being exported to Europe and elsewhere. The outbreak of World War I and the establishment of a synthetic dyestuffs industry in Germany marked the end of the Indian indigo industry. There is no production of synthetic dyestuffs in India at present and we are therefore entirely dependent on imports.

The cotton textile industry is by far the stablest industry in India, the capital invested in it being nearly 50 per cent of the total capital invested in all industries. Realizing that there was acute cloth shortage the now defunct National Planning Committee recommended that the present output of cloth be doubled in the very near future. It is thus unnecessary to stress the need and urgency of also establishing a dyestuffs industry in the country. A survey made recently by the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research of the Government of India has shown that the position is on the whole favourable for the manufacture of dyestuffs, and that all the dyes which are now in substantial demand could be manufactured in large quantities within the next 15 to 30 years.

Raw Materials.—The raw materials necessary for the dyestuffs industry, namely, benzene, toluene, naphthalene, anthracene, carbazole, pyridine, etc., are derived from distillation of coal for making coke. It is regrettable that in spite of an abundant supply of coal (about 30 million tons are raised annually) India has not developed the coal-tar-distillation industry to any appreciable extent. In pre-war years about 60,000 tons of coal were distilled ; this had dwindled to about 25,000 tons, but during the war, an attempt was made to obtain intermediate chemicals. As a result India is now able to produce 2 million gallons of benzene and 1 million gallons of toluene per annum at a cost which compares favourably with that prevailing in other countries. Recently, the manufacture of nitrobenzene at the Ordnance Factories has been established, and it is now possible for the Indian industry to obtain about 100 tons of nitrobenzene. It has not been difficult to establish the production of mono-nitrotoluenes which are now obtainable at a reasonable price. Manufacture was started for the production of 1,000 tons of acetone from alcohol which is also now available for industrial purposes. During the war, it was felt necessary that the production of power alcohol should be taken in hand. Considerable quantities of butyl and amyl alcohol are also obtainable as by-products in this industry. The Indian coal is generally carbonised at a fairly high temperature with the result that the percentage of naphthalene hydrocarbons is rather high in the distillate. The production of naphthalene has been developed, and we have now a capacity of 2,000 tons of naphthalene per annum, which is capable of further expansion at a short notice. A certain amount of phthalic acid is also produced. The production of other basic chemicals such as Aniline, Hydroquinol, etc. has also been developed.

In pre-war years about 21 million lbs. of dyestuffs, were being imported for the production of which about 250 million lbs. of refined coal-tar-distillation products would be required. Our present production of the latter is only 60 million lbs. per annum.

The major inorganic heavy chemicals required for the dyestuffs industry are sulphuric, nitric and hydrochloric acids, caustic soda and soda ash, salt, lime and alum. It is estimated that the dyestuffs industry will consume about 30,000 tons/annum of the three acids which consumption is not provided for in the targets presented in the Table on p. 202. Although these acids, alkalies and other salts are being produced in India they are more or less fully allocated to existing consumer industries, and hence it is doubtful whether the dyestuffs industry will be able to draw upon their present production. Further, the prices in most cases may be too high, and it is therefore desirable from all points of view that the proposed Indian dyestuffs industry should manufacture its own requirements of heavy inorganic chemicals.

Besides coal-tar derivatives and inorganic heavy chemicals, the dyestuffs industry also requires aliphatic raw materials like ethyl alcohol, acetic acid and acetic anhydride. Of these, only ethyl alcohol is produced in sufficient quantities, and hence it will be necessary to establish the manufacture of the other two chemicals.

THE COFFEE INDUSTRY

COFFEE cultivation is mainly confined to the hilly tracts of South India, from one thousand to six thousand feet above the mean sea level, and is centred in the Malnad area of Mysore, Coorg, Madras, and the United State of Travancore-Cochin. In the lower elevations which have a higher rainfall, the more delicate but better quality Arabica coffee has given place to the harder but coarser Robusta coffee.

The area and production, of the two varieties of coffee, for the last six years are as under :

AREA IN ACRES

Year	Arabica	Robusta	Total
1944-45 ..	1,60,586	40,831	2,01,417
1945-46 ..	1,64,724	46,138	2,10,862
1946-47 ..	1,67,414	49,502	2,16,916
1947-48 ..	1,66,581	52,260	2,18,841
1948-49 ..	1,66,679	54,357	2,21,036
1949-50 ..	1,64,190	60,415	2,24,605

PRODUCTION IN TONS

Production	Arabica	Robusta	Total
1944-45 ..	13,480	3,820	17,300
1945-46 ..	19,300	6,200	25,500
1946-47 ..	12,100	3,250	15,350
1947-48 ..	6,970	8,830	15,800
1948-49 ..	18,299	3,269	21,568
1949-50 ..	*12,465	*7,646	*20,111

*Receipts up to end of March.

Subject to seasonal variations, the average crop at present can be said to be about 20,000 tons, though there is a tendency for production to increase to 30,000 tons, but with the difference that there will be a bigger crop of Robusta.

The coffee industry in South India, like the other major quality coffee-producing countries in the world, Columbia and Venezuela, is essentially one of small growers. The total number of estates or holdings are reckoned at 27,352, of which 17,847 are below 5 acres, 2,235 are between 5 and 10 acres, 1,593 are between 10 and 25 acres, and 1,437 are over 25 acres. Besides there are 4,240 small holdings in Travancore, of which the areas under the different categories is not known. Thus scientific measures to improve production and marketing or to standardize the product, have got to be taken with the aim of reaching and ensuring the co-operation of these small growers.

INDIAN COFFEE BOARD

The pattern of consumption till the beginning of the Second World War was that more than 60 per cent. of Indian coffee was exported, and less than 40 per cent. was consumed in the internal market. When the export markets were dislocated as a result of the war, there was a danger of all the coffee produced being dumped in the internal market, with a serious drop in prices, and the ultimate ruin of the industry. Even apart from the war coffee prices in the decade 1929-39 were well below the cost of production, and most of the smaller units and many of the bigger units were also going off production.

It was at this point that the idea of forming a statutory body (now called the Indian Coffee Board), to increase internal consumption by propaganda, and also to control exports was first put forward. The body that was set up as a result did achieve both these aims. At the same time methods were worked out for increasing production and a larger allocation of manure was made for coffee estates to increase yields.

The average market prices in February 1951 were :—Rs. 215-3-0 per cwt. for Plantation, Rs. 208-7-0 for Arabica cherry and Rs. 203-3-0 for Robusta as against an export price of Rs. 338 for Plantation.

The peculiar feature of the year 1949-50 was that the average crop picked on account of adverse seasonal conditions, and the large export of 4,000 tons allowed in anticipation of an early bumper crop of 30,000 tons for the season 1950-51, did not materialise. The result was an artificial scarcity of coffee in the internal market and the soaring of prices, and the Board is now hard put to it to keep internal prices down, on account of the present low stock position.

There is a world scarcity of coffee on account of adverse seasonal conditions in the major coffee producing country of the world, Brazil, and the repercussions are felt in other countries also. The only solution seems to be to stop exports as was done in 1948, husband the existing stocks, and release them month by month to prevent cornering by the speculative trade, and make more extensive use of the fair price depots, and the co-operative stores.

THE COIR INDUSTRY

COIR is the trade name given to the fibre obtained from the husk of the coconut fruit. India and Ceylon have a virtual monopoly in the production of this by-product of the coconut industry and its development in these countries has been rendered possible by the fact that these coconuts are usually harvested when the husk of the fruit is still green, though the coconut within is ripe. Good quality coir can only be produced from the fresh green husk of the ripe fruit. If the nut is not fully ripe the fibre in the husk has not developed its full strength, and if the fruit has dried the fibre is weak, dark coloured and difficult to extract.

In Ceylon, the extraction isdone by mechanical means on a factory scale after the husks have been retted in water for two or three weeks, and under such methods it is not possible to obtain either the colour or cleanliness of the fully retted Indian coir. The process consists of holding the husk against a revolving spiked drum which combs and extracts the fibre. The shorter fibres collect in the drum and after cleaning are classed as "mattress fibre." The longer fibres are retained in the hand of the operator and are classed as "bristle fibre" which is exported for use in the manufacture of brushes, etc. About 75 per cent. of the Ceylon produce is exported as raw fibre, and only 25 per cent. as yarn or manufactured coir.

The industry as far as the export trade is concerned, is confined to the backwater regions of the Malabar coast, Travancore-Cochin, and to the Laccadive and Divi Islands, which are administered by the Madras Government. The extraction of the fibre and the manufacture of coir yarn forms a well organised cottage industry. The freshly harvested nuts are purchased by merchants, dehusked and the husks are then conveyed down the backwaters to suitable places for retting. Such places are situated along the tidal reaches of the backwaters, and sites for retting are selected in places where the ground contains a considerable admixture of sand. Here, pits are dug, either in the backwater itself or on the banks and after lining these with palm leaves they are filled with the husks. After filling they are covered with plaited coconut leaves and weighed down with soil or mud. The husks are left to ret in these pits for a period of about eight months, the tidal rise and fall of the water and the porous nature of the ground ensuring constant water movement through the mass of retting husks and thus supplying aeration for the necessary bacterial action.

Women's Work.—At the end of this period, the husks are removed from the retting pit, washed in clean water and distributed among the local people who extract the fibre. This is usually spare time work done by the women of the house. Firstly, the outer skin of the husk is removed and the husk is then beaten with a wooden mallet on a block of wood or stone. This separates the fibre from the decaying pithy matter in which it is embedded in the husk. The fibre thus extracted is dried in the shade and then beaten or willowed with thin bamboo canes. The fibre is then returned to the merchant who further cleans this in a revolving drum furnished with projecting spikes resembling thin saw blades made of iron. Then the fibre is sorted out into colour grade and distributed among the local people who spin this into yarn. This is fundamentally a cottage industry. The fibre is first made into "slivers" and is then either spun by hand or on a wheel. Then it is returned to the merchant who again grades this for colour and splices the short lengths into a continuous length of 450 yards. Finally it is tied into bundles and is sold to the factories where it is either baled up for export or is manufactured into matting, door mats, braid, ship's fenders, rope, etc.

The yarn is very carefully graded, both for manufacture and for export, according to its colour, which is, in reality, a gauge of proper retting. The best quality coir is of a golden-yellow colour and the lowest grade grey which shows that the husks have either been over-retted or that the conditions for retting have not been satisfactory.

Properly retted coir is much more easily spun than machine made coir, because its fibres are clean and free from adhering pith and much more even yarn is obtained from it. It is also much stronger than machine made coir because none of the long or "bristle" fibres have been removed in the process of extraction. The colour is not only attractive, but is an indication that retting has been carried through to the correct stage.

Coir fibre, when made into ropes, is extremely elastic and thus yields to heavy strains, and has therefore special uses. It does not rot easily when exposed to atmospheric conditions, or to salt or fresh water, and in manufacture it is found to take dyes readily.

The Government of Madras are conducting a coir training school at Beypore near Kozhikode under the control of the Director of Industries and Commerce, where students are trained in improved methods of cleaning fibre, of spinning of coir yarn on the wheel, of producing ropes, belts, mats, rugs, mattings, etc.

A coir industrial school is also being conducted by the Government of Madras, Department of Industries and Commerce, in the Uddanam tract of the Srikakulam District for giving training in improved methods of coir industry for the benefit of fishermen and other educationally backward communities of the area.

A large-scale Coir Factory is also being started by the Department of Industries and Commerce, Madras at Beypore to be run on commercial lines.

The Government of Madras have constituted a Coir Advisory Board consisting of non-official businessmen, traders in coir and representatives of Chambers of Commerce with the Director of Industries and Commerce as Chairman to advise Government as to the steps necessary for the development of coir industry on up-to-date lines on the measures necessary for the proper grading of coir and coir products and to lay down suitable specifications with a view to maintaining the standard of quality, especially for export and also to explore the possibilities of developing export trade in coir.

Coir Workers' Co-operative Societies exist in the districts of Malabar, South Kanara, and Srikakulam of the Madras State engaged in the production of coir yarn, ropes and other coir goods under the control of the Co-operative Department. The Department of Industries and Commerce renders technical assistance and advice.

The Trade.—During normal times the value of the coir trade is considerable, the imports into Great Britain alone, which represent less than 20 per cent. of the Indian exports, are shown in the Board of Trade returns as amounting in value to more than one million pounds per annum. It is an industry which provides a profitable occupation to the densely populated back water tracts of western India, and it provides the raw material in the shape of yarn and fibre for a considerable part of industry in Europe. More than 80 per cent. of the manufactured coir products and more than 90 per cent. of the coir yarn imported into the United Kingdom are produced in India.

The War made a change to the coir trade. Coir production in India considerably dwindled owing to the shrinkage of overseas markets. The United Kingdom which was India's principal market before the War reduced her imports very considerably, while all the European markets were lost to India on account of restrictions imposed by all the importing countries on imports of coir. But the U.S.A. and Canada became important buyers of coir floor-coverings from India which took the place of Japan, China and Java which were supplying weed and grass mats in the pre-war years. During the War, coir was found to be a suitable substitute for hemp and sisal for cordage purposes and began to be used as such on a large scale on account of the non-availability of Manilla hemp and Javanese sisal, consequent on the Japanese occupation of the Philippine Islands and Indonesia. The War has shown that coir can be used for various other purposes also like the making of roads or a good wearing surface.

COTTAGE INDUSTRIES

COTTAGE industries have been variously defined by different authorities according to the number of persons employed in the units, the nature of the work, the use or rather the avoidance of the use of machines, power and so on. The field of cottage industries forks out into agriculture, forestry, animal breeding, fishing and mining. It is estimated that about 20 million workers are engaged in cottage industries in India. This figure does not include the large number of persons who engage themselves in agricultural pursuits side by side with production in some craft or in the processing of agricultural produce. This figure also does not include all the members of the artisan's family who assist him during their leisure. Classified figures are given in the table below :

Name of Industry	No. of persons employed
Textiles	50,00,000
Leather	24,00,000
Wood	20,00,000
Metals	40,00,000
Pottery, ceramics, tiles, etc. ..	20,00,000
Chemical products (vegetable oil, etc.)	10,00,000
Food	20,00,000
Dress and Toilet	11,00,000
Miscellaneous undefined industries (Jewellery, toy-making etc.)	6,00,000
	2,01,00,000

There is the benefit derived from providing subsidiary occupation to the rural population which has always to be reckoned. It is estimated that about 60 to 90 million man power is being wasted in India. Only cottage industries are capable of utilising this large man power.

Enquiries about Articles

Middle East Countries: Blankets (cotton, woollen and mixed), carpets; coconuts (desiccated), combs, coir mats and mattings, coir yarn fancy goods, furnishing fabrics, hats (pith and felt); hemp, twine and rope; ivory products (boxes, statues, bracelets, necklace etc.); Locks and pad-locks, shells for button manufacture, silk textiles, sporting requisites, toys, etc.

New Zealand and Australia: Bamboo and cane goods, carpets, embroidery and lace goods, sporting requisites.

South American Countries: Artistic textiles, leather goods, toys, lacquer work articles, embroidery articles, wood work, ivory products, etc.

Canada: Carpets and rugs, cane, poles and rattan, cocoa mats and matting, sports goods, lace goods, precious stones, coir and coir products, etc.

U.S.A.: Arts and crafts products such as carpets, brassware and silverware, silk, etc.

East Africa: Art products, fancy and ivory goods, silk goods, hosiery, jewellery, curios, etc.

TEXTILES

Textile production on a cottage industry scale in India has had a glorious past. Mummies in the Pyramids, dating from 2,000 B.C. have been found clothed in the finest Indian muslin. The ladies of the Imperial Courts of Rome and the mediaeval kingdoms delighted to deck themselves in Indian silk. Till the early modern period the fineness of Indian handloom fabrics was the wonder of the world.

After agriculture the handloom weaving industry is still the largest single source of occupation in India. It is estimated that the industry maintains a total population of over one million people. It employes more than 85 per cent. of the textile workers in India. The number of spinners and weavers engaged in khadi work under the All India Spinners' Association alone is 2,70,000. The number of weavers putting in full time work is 14,34,000 and part-time 7,47,000. There are 2,53,000 paid assistants and 25,73,000 unpaid assistants.

Number of Looms and Workers*

Region	No. of looms and weavers	No. of dependents	Total No. dependent on the industry
Assam	411,018	1,233,254	1,644,072
Madras	294,101	882,303	1,176,404
Punjab	227,295	681,885	909,180
U.P.	192,890	578,670	771,560
Bengal	121,019	363,057	484,076
Hyderabad	108,775	326,325	435,100
Bombay	103,300	309,900	413,200

* 1940

There are about 2 million looms in the country, of which 13 per cent. are idle. 72 per cent. of the looms are engaged in cotton weaving, 16 per cent. in silk, 5 per cent. in wool, 1 per cent. in artificial silk and 6 per cent. in other textile mixtures. 64 per cent. of the looms are throw shuttle looms, 35 per cent. fly shuttle looms and 1 per cent. of other categories.

The total production of cloth woven on a cottage industries scale is estimated at 30 per cent. of the total production of textiles in India. Out of the 68,000 lakh yards of cotton cloth no less than 20,000 lakh yards are produced by the handloom industry.

Total Value of Hand-woven Cloth*

	(In crores of rupees)
Cotton textiles	47
Silk	15
Artificial silk	4
Wool	3
Others	3·80
Total ..	72·80

* 1939

There is no State in the country where handloom weaving does not exist. But its importance varies largely from State to State. The weavers are generally found in important bazaar towns. In Assam the weavers are generally women, while in other States they are generally men. Cotton goods turned out on handloom are in the main saries, dhotees, towels, bed sheets, lungies and grey cloth, though shirtings, coatings, table cloths etc. are also being produced at some centres now.

Yarn and Cloth

Year	Yarn available to handlooms (in million lbs.)	Cloth produced on handlooms (in million yds.)
1900-01	161·6	646·4
1910-11	217·0	868·0
1920-21	232·8	931·2
1930-31	314·3	1,257·2
1931-32	333·1	1,332·4
1932-33	379·8	1,519·2
1933-34	315·5	1,262·0
1934-35	313·9	1,255·6
1935-36	362·6	1,450·4
1936-37	316·3	1,265·2
1937-38	323·3	1,293·2
1938-39	425·8	1,703·2
1949-50 approx. ..	350·0	1,400·0

Spinning

Annual consumption (according to counts) in million pounds

Region	Counts of yarn			
	1-10	21-30	Above 40	Total
Madras	6.13 (7.44%)	13.99 (17.04%)	15.57 (18.96%)	82.13 (22.86%)
U.P.	14.79 (28.89%)	4.31 (8.40%)	1.65 (3.22%)	51.21 (14.25%)
Punjab*	31.25 (63.93%)	1.88 (3.85%)	2.00 (4.09%)	48.88 (13.60%)
Bombay	2.81 (6%)	14.96 (32%)	11.69 (25%)	46.75 (13.02%)
Baroda	2.42 (80.46%)	0.19 (6.40%)	0.01 (0.16%)	3.01 (0.84%)
Kolhapur & Former Dn. States	0.01 (0.37%)	1.10 (41.20%)	1.15 (43.07%)	2.67 (0.74%)
Bengal*	0.44 (1.5%)	14.82 (50%)	5.93 (20%)	29.64 (8.25%)
Madhya Pradesh	2.58 (11.86%)	3.46 (15.90%)	0.93 (4.27%)	21.76 (6.06%)
Bihar	6.80 (35.88%)	0.89 (4.70%)	0.25 (1.32%)	18.85 (5.28%)
Hyderabad	3.16 (17.80%)	2.74 (15.48%)	1.47 (8.36%)	17.73 (4.93%)
Orissa	0.47 (3.19%)	4.33 (29.35%)	1.11 (7.60%)	14.73 (4.10%)
Travancore	0.34 (5%)	0.34 (5%)	0.34 (5%)	6.85 (1.90%)
Cochin	Negligible	0.50 (34.48%)	0.10 (6.9%)	1.45 (0.4%)
Assam	0.42 (6.25%)	3.00 (44.64%)	0.35 (5.21%)	6.72 (1.87%)
Mysore	0.09 (2%)	2.16 (48%)	....	4.50 (1.25%)
Jammu and Kashmir	Negligible	1.81 (77.68%)	0.02 (0.86%)	2.33 (0.65%)
Total ..	71.71 (19.95%)	70.48 (19.62%)	42.57 (11.84%)	359.21 ....

* Pre-Partition.

The rest is made up by yarn of counts 11-20 and 31-40.

There are about 2,00,000 spinners in the country who are working under one or other organisation whose total production of handspun yarn is estimated at 60 million lbs.

Ginning and pressing of cotton, newar and tape weaving, and durries manufacture are some of the allied industries.

Silk

Silk weavers are found in nearly every State in India. Assam and Bengal are the largest producers of silk. Women form the majority of the silk weavers in Assam where 2,03,000 looms are engaged in silk weaving. West Bengal has 14,426 looms with an output of 10 per cent. of the total Indian silk production. Saree, lungi, dhotee, chadar, paithani, pagota, turbans, brocades, etc. are the main silk fabrics. The brocades and silk fabrics of important centres like Banaras, Murshidabad, Surat, Amritsar have a particularly wide reputation. India is the only country where Tussar, Endi and Munga silk is produced. The worms of these varieties are harder in their habits and feed on the leaves easily available.

An allied industry is gold and silver thread work and gota making. These threads are used both in weaving and embroidery.

Wool

The pride of place in the manufacture of woollen articles goes to Kashmir where beautiful work with intricate designs is turned out in small cottages. The wool weaver is, however, found in most regions in the country where sheep breeding is carried on. Coarse blankets, etc. that are required by the villager for an all-type use are manufactured in most regions. There are certain centres which specialise in carpets and druggets. The other woollen products are loi (a type of blanket), gabba (milled loi), namda, patti (milled blankets), pattu (tweed cloth), pashmina, rugs and shawls. Embroidered woollen fabrics are produced in Kashmir and the Punjab.

Embroidery

Embroidery on cotton, silk and wool is done in many towns of India. In Assam, artistic stuff is turned out by ornamenting of cloth with cowries. There are famous centres in Bengal, Madras, the Punjab and Kashmir. Silk and cotton thread, wool, silver and gold thread are used in producing beautiful designs in flower, bird, fruit etc. Chikan work, kashida work, gold and silver lace, drawn thread work, crochet work, needle work, knitting and hosiery work are carried on in many urban centres.

Dyeing and Printing

Dyeing and printing is also an important industry. Various centres in different parts of India have specialised in the production of traditional designs. Kalamkari and printing and painting of cloth with permanent dyes is one of India's oldest art-crafts. The most important kalamkari centre is Masulipatam in Andhra. Usually wherever there are printers block-makers are also found. Screen printing is a recent development.

Caps, hats, turbans, shoe laces, ready-made clothes, twills and other articles of dress are manufactured in small units. Buttons of metal, horn, mother of pearl, shells, plastics, rags, etc. are manufactured at different centres. Umbrella handles and umbrellas and decorative articles, are also manufactured in some cities.

Flax, Jute Manufactures

Spinning and weaving of flax and jute and manufacture of gunny cloths and bags, canvas cloth, quilts, sails and tents is found in some centres in Bengal and other States. Weaving of mats and mattings of coir, screw pines, palmyra fibre, hemp, ambadi, sisal and coarse grasses is undertaken in many States. Fishing nets of some fibres are produced by fishermen. Ropes and twines are manufactured in almost every village. Coir mats are being manufactured in large quantities in Cochin and Travancore. Manufacture of brushes, door mats and furniture has been introduced lately.

FOREST PRODUCE

Aboriginals and some backward class people manufacture brooms, tatpattis, patravalis, fans and other household articles out of different leaves and grasses. At certain places the work turned out is very artistic. Rough cane and bamboo work is carried on in rural areas where baskets, screens, sieves, winnows, mats, etc. required by the villagers are produced. In urban areas finer work is done and boxes, tables, chairs, book cases and other articles of furniture are made. In Madras furniture with lacquer coating is a speciality.

There are 89 million acres of land under forest in India, where the woodcutter and the charcoal-burner find employment. The main produce from the forests is timber. Charcoal is manufactured in forest coupes from particular types of wood and transported to the cities. Amongst other forest produce are firewood, tanning material like harda, ghatbore, different types of barks and grasses, herbs, shellac, turpentine, etc.

ARTS AND CRAFTS

Carpentry is a key village industry.

The blacksmith is also found in every big Indian village.

Utensils of brass, aluminium, lead, tin, steel, copper and bell metal are manufactured at various centres in every State. Metal ware is either beaten ware (thoka) or castware. The metal and lead work of Assam, Punjab and Hyderabad, the bidri work (damascened work) of Bidar, Lucknow, Purnia and Murshidabad, enamelling work (meena-kari) specially in Jaipur, Alwar, Delhi, Lahore, Multan and Banaras are famous. Bell metal mirrors are produced in Travancore.

There are some units that undertake the highly skilled job of manufacture of mathematical, geometrical, surgical and other scientific instruments, wire drawing and manufacture of badla, chamki, salma etc. Motor body building has been started in some centres.

The silver and goldsmith is another craftsman who is found throughout the country. Lapidary work or stone grinding is a specialised craft followed in some centres specially in Bengal, Jaipur, Kashmir and Madras. In Madhya Pradesh there are some centres where lacquer work is done on silver. Lac bangles are produced at a number of centres in all States. In Assam lac ornaments are prepared set with false rubies and cheap garnets. Pearl fishing is carried on at different coastal centres.

The papier machie work of Kashmir is famous, for its picturesque designs, colours and finish. This work is also done in some other States. The products include baskets, cigarette boxes, powder boxes, writing sets, shades, toys, vases, finger bowls, toilet sets etc. Even in villages crude baskets, etc. of paper pulp are made.

Crude toys are manufactured in every village and town.

Sports goods used in old Indian games like kites and kite flying yarn, chess, chowpad, painted playing cards, marionettes, masks, etc. are made in some centres. Sport goods required in the western games like cricket balls, bats, sticks, shuttle cocks, etc. are being manufactured in the Punjab and on a smaller scale in U.P.

Tabla and other Indian musical instruments are manufactured by highly skilled workers at some centres. Manufacture of harmoniums and violins has also been undertaken lately.

Stone-work, Pottery, Glass

Stone quarrying and stone cutting as a subsidiary industry to construction of buildings, roads, etc. engages unskilled labour as well as highly skilled artisans. The potter is an important village artisan who is still to be found in every big village. He manufactures cooking vessels, water pots, jars, tobacco pots, hukkas, etc. Manufacture of bricks and tiles is found throughout India. Lime burning also continues in most towns though lime is being replaced by cement now.

The most important among the cottage glass industries in the country is the manufacture of bangles. Before the war 80 per cent. of the total supply of bangles was met by Firozabad in U.P., 15 per cent. by imports from foreign countries and 5 per cent. from bangles manufactured in other provinces. Today about 50,000 people are employed in this industry. Glass beads are produced at various centres. Mirrors are made in Bombay.

CHEMICALS

Washing soap is manufactured at many centres on a cottage industry basis. Vegetable dyes and pigments, paints and varnishes, turpentine are still produced in some centres. The manufacture of fireworks is an old industry. The manufacture of ink, shoe polish, drugs and medicines, disinfectants, acids etc. has been started on a small scale in some cities. Candles are manufactured in Cochin and Travancore.

Scents, attars, hair oils, brilliantine, cold cream, udabatti, surma or antimony, kumkum, pith garlands and flowers, artificial flowers, wooden and horn combs, brushes, etc. are manufactured at many urban centres.

OIL PRESSING

The oil presser is another village artisan to be found spread throughout the country. There are a few centres where Rosa oil, lemon oil, eucalyptus oil, etc. are produced.

FOODS

There are 3 lakh ghanis in the country that press about 10 lakh tons of oil per year which is 33.3 per cent. of the total production of oil in the country. Neem oil is being produced in small quantities in certain areas in Madras and U.P. and at one centre in Bombay.

State	No. of ghanis working
Assam	987
Bombay	10,000
Bihar	5,761
Madras	30,200
Madhya Pradesh	16,550
Punjab	5,500
Uttar Pradesh	1,50,000
Hyderabad	10,400
Madhya Bharat	6,880
Mysore	2,630
Other States	60,000

Rice husking

Till recently three-fourths of the country's paddy used to be handled by hand pounders and one-fourth by rice mills. Because of the present procurement controls the proportion of paddy handled by mills has risen from 25 to 40 per cent.

(Quantity in thousand tons)

State	Hand-pounded						Machine-milled					
	Rice including brokens		Bran including some of the germ and very small fragments or particles of the rice kernel		Husk		Rice including edible brokens		Bran including some of the germ and very small fragments or particles of the rice kernel		Husk	
	Per cent	Qty.	Per cent	Qty.	Per cent	Qty.	Per cent	Qty.	Per cent	Qty.	Per cent	Qty.
Madras[1]	73	543	7	52	20	149	70	3,822	10	546	20	1,092
Bihar[2]	73	2,721	3	112	24	895	67.6	161	8.4	20	24	57
Orissa[3]	71	1,231	4	69	24	434	67	159	9	21	24	57
Madhya Pradesh[4]	73	1,150	3	47	24	378	68	577	9	76	23	195
Mysore[5]	69	65	6	6	25	24	67	181	8	22	25	68
Total	72.5	5,710	3.6	286	23.9	1,880	69.5	4,900	9.7	685	20.8	1,469

[1] Average of 1944–45 to 1946–47.
[2] Average of 1943–44 to 1945–46.
[3] Average of 1936–37 to 1947–48.
[4] Average of 1945–46 to 1947–48.
[5] Average of 1946–47

The manufacture of biscuits, cakes, sweetmeat is carried on by small units for sales. Rice and flour milling, grain parching, pulses splitting, cashew-nut roasting, manufacture of salt, ghee, butter, cheese; jaggery made of sugarcane, datepalm, palmyra or coconut; sugar and sugar candies; manufacture of catechu, betel-nut curing, etc. are carried on usually in villages as subsidiary industries and in towns as full time industries.

Among other industries subsidiary to agriculture are bee-keeping, extraction of bee-wax, bird rearing, duck breeding, cattle, sheep and pig breeding; poultry farming and manure making.

There are 5,700 bee colonies maintained in Bombay State and about 10,000 in Madras State. Bee colonies are also maintained in Mysore, Coorg, Travancore-Cochin Union, U.P., Punjab, Assam, Orissa and Madhya Pradesh. The total quantity of honey extracted in Bombay is about 59,000 lbs. per year. 99 per cent. of bee-keepers are agriculturists. Apart from extracted honey, wild honey is collected throughout India. 60,000 lbs. of wild honey is collected in Bombay State every year.

Fish curing, fish canning, drying and salting of fish and manufacture of fish oil are some of the industries subsidiary to fishing. The manufacture of bidis is prevalent in most cities. At some places cigarettes and cigars are also being produced. Tobacco for chewing and smoking and snuff are prepared at many places. Matches are manufactured by cottage units in Madras State.

LEATHER

Tanning is an important cottage industry in India. India is the largest single producer of hides and skins. Flaying is done on the spot by the village flayer. Out of the total amount of leather tanned the number of bag tanned hides and skins amounts to 43.8 per cent. pit tanned by small cottage units 41.3 per cent. and that tanned by the modern method to only 14.9 per cent. About 75 per cent. of the leather produced is used in footwear. An allied industry to leather is the production of glue, gelatine, resin, gutts and tallow. Enamelling on leather is done in Assam.

Annual production of kips, buffs and skins.

(pieces in lakhs)

Region	Kips		Buffs		Skins	
	Fallen	Slaughtered	Fallen	Slaughtered	Goat skins	Sheep skins
Madras	30.6	10.0	11.8	3.3	20.5	41.2
Bengal	24.9	18.3	1.2	0.5	29.6	3.5
U.P.	11.2	4.8	3.7	1.9	53.2	17.0
Bihar	12.4	4.1	3.2	2.0	28.8	3.0
Madhya Pradesh	12.2	0.7	6.2	0.2	11.3	2.3
Hyderabad	11.5	1.7	2.2	..	16.3	17.1
Bombay	10.0	1.7	3.6	0.4	26.2	23.5
Orissa	8.7	1.3	3.4	0.2	10.4	2.6
Punjab	6.8	2.6	3.3	1.6	18.7	15.1
Rajputana	6.6	..	1.9	..	21.3	13.7
Assam	3.8	0.5	0.4	..	1.5	..
Mysore	0.6	2.8	0.2	0.6	3.3	5.7
Central India	2.8	..	0.7	..	4.7	0.6
Kashmir	1.8	..	..	..	3.1	4.6
N.W.F.P.	..	2.4	..	1.8	5.7	5.3
Sind	1.5	0.2	0.4	..	6.3	1.9
Other areas	2.0	1.6	1.6	0.8	14.0	13.7
Total	147.4	52.7	43·8	13.3	274·9	170.8

Annual production of tanned leather.

(pieces in lakhs)

Region	Tanned Hides		Tanned Skins	
	Half tanned No. of pieces	Finished No. of pieces	Half tanned No. of pieces	Finished No. of pieces
Madras	71.0	9.0	142.00	14.60
Bengal	..	6.6	1.50	1.84
U.P.	..	12.3	..	3.69
Madhya Pradesh	..	..	0.21	..
Hyderabad	6.0	..	29.12	..
Bombay	2.0	1.3	9.61	..
Punjab	..	0.8	..	2.40
Mysore	6.8	0.6	5.00	..
Other areas	..	..	0.70	0.10
Total	85.8	30.6	188.14	22.63